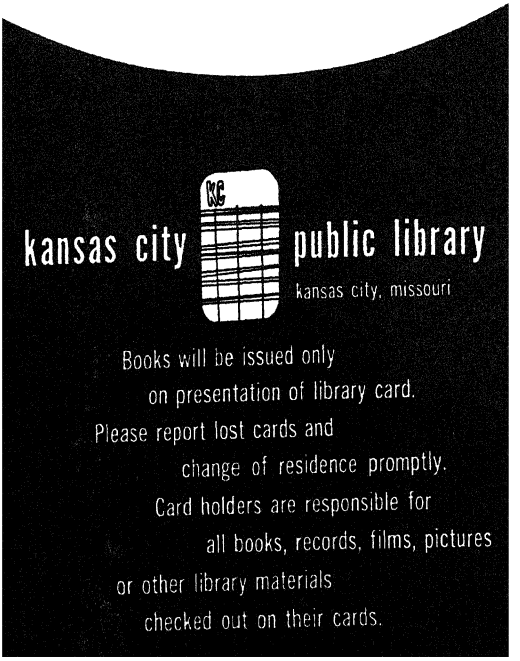
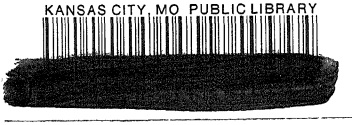
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The PRINCIPAL IN THE MODERN ELEMENTARY School

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The principal in the modern
elementary school



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THE PRINCIPAL IN THE *Modern Elementary School*

By

ROBERT HILL LANE

Assistant Superintendent of Schools
Los Angeles, California



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To Seven Men
Who Have Contributed Greatly
to Elementary School Education
in the United States

W. S. GRAY
HOWARD A. LANE
J. MURRAY LEE
E. T. McSWAIN
ERNEST O. MELBY
JAMES S. TIPPETT
PAUL WITTY

This Book Is Respectfully Dedicated

Foreword

THIS is the concluding volume in a series of three books on the modern elementary school in the United States. *The Progressive Elementary School* [1] presented the basic philosophy of progressive education; *The Teacher in the Modern Elementary School* [2] discussed modern classroom procedures; and the present volume gives an overview of the modern school from the standpoint of the principal.

The organization of this book is simple. It is based upon the concept that the principal performs two major functions: management, and the direction of learning. In the opening chapter the reader is introduced to the principal through a record of a typical day's work. The next three chapters deal with various phases of management, followed by three chapters which discuss the responsibility of the principal in his relation to the learning process. The two succeeding chapters deal with evaluation while the final chapter is addressed to the principal as a person. It is hoped that the principal who uses this

[1] Robert Hill Lane, *The Progressive Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938).

[2] Robert Hill Lane, *The Teacher in the Modern Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941).

volume may find it helpful in keeping his school and himself closely in touch with those educational trends which appear to have promise for the future.

Attention is called to the section "New School Buildings for a New America" in Chapter Four. An attempt has been made to present the most outstanding new elementary-school buildings of recent years. Grateful acknowledgment is made herewith to those architects, school superintendents, and corporations who have given their time generously in preparing the necessary data.

ROBERT HILL LANE

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THE PRINCIPAL IN THE MODERN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

CHAPTER ONE



Meet the Principal

LET US BEGIN our study of the functions of the elementary-school principal by looking over his shoulder as he writes his "daily log."

I. The Principal at Work

A.M.

8:30: The custodian meets me as soon as I reach my office and tells me that he has had to telephone the maintenance department for help. The fuel line of our oil burner is clogged, and the classrooms are cold.

8:32: I find that my clerk is ill, and a substitute clerk is waiting for instructions. "Will you please outline my work for today? I can't find any instructions in the clerk's desk."

8:45: Miss Roberts (A6) dashes into the office to complain that she is short twenty copies of her required geography text. The record in the office shows that she received and receipted for her full quota. Problem: Where are the missing copies?

8:50: The kindergarten teacher comes in to protest that the custodian has waxed her classroom floor not wisely but too well, and traffic is passable but dangerous.

8:55: Mrs. Ortiz wishes to enter her three children (ages 5, 9, and 12) in our school. She has no report cards or school records of any kind.

9:00: The president of the P. T. A. calls on her way to market to remind me that I am to make a short speech this afternoon to the P. T. A. members on the Community Chest. Also, hadn't we better bring up the matter of agitating for a new addition to the building to relieve our overcrowded classrooms?

9:10: The class president (aged 11) of B5 runs into the office all out of breath to inform me that his teacher is missing. As I telephone the Assignment office, to see if a substitute has been sent,

9:11: the substitute arrives, young, attractive, and all starry-eyed over the prospect of a day's salary. Since she has been trained exclusively for the first grade, it is quite natural to have the Personnel Department assign her to a fifth grade on the principle of picking out the least competent person for the job. I turn her over to the class president, who departs in triumph with his prize.

9:12: For thirty-three minutes I have comparative peace. I open my school mail, brought by daily messenger, and my United States mail. The school mail is the usual motley collection of transfers from other schools; requests for transfers from my school; a "pep" letter from the Superintendent on the Community Chest drive; a pathetic letter from a fellow principal who "ditched" the last superintendent's meeting and wants a copy of my notes; a request from the Attendance Division for the school record of one John Hadley, now in Juvenile Hall on suspicion of stealing an automobile; a tart note from the Research Division asking why I was late in getting in my list of over-age children, and so forth. The United States mail assays 95 per cent advertisements, ranging all the way from reputable book concerns to far from reputable loan sharks who assure me

that I need have no fears for my financial safety during the summer vacation period (twelve weeks from pay day to pay day!). Also a letter from a disgruntled parent asking why our educational standards are so much lower than those in Duck Pond, Mississippi, from which she has recently moved her family, adding the far-from-original comment that she is a taxpayer and that I had better answer her forthwith, or else.

9:45: Comes one Alyce Marie Jones (A4, age 9), rather dewy around the lashes, with a phonograph record in one hand and note (sealed) in the other. The note is from her teacher Miss Smythe (not Smith) and covers four pages of paper in a big splashing hand with nearly every other word heavily underlined. It appears that Alyce brought a phonograph record ("ever so pretty, Miss Smythe!") for rhythms, and when played, it turned out to be the *Beer Barrel Polka.* The first barrel had hardly been rolled out before Miss Smythe turned the phonograph off, confiscated the record, and composed a note on the incident. Miss Smythe is addicted to notes. Hardly a day goes by without one on my desk from that severe and over-conscientious person. And what *did* I *think* of this *distressing* incident? I write on the note, "I think the *Beer Barrel Polka* is a swell tune," and send Alyce on her way rejoicing.

Under the circumstances, it seems the part of wisdom to absent myself from the office for a while, and I have fifteen happy minutes wandering around the schoolyard. I note that the gravel on the yard is rough and lumpy, and I wonder if I had better not put in a request for strips of asphalt or some other hard surface to reduce the dust and the daily toll of skinned knees and rubbed elbows. I note also the lack of shade on the schoolyard. My school suffers from a climate which presents us with many days of intense sunshine, and I am led to wonder why our schoolyards are as a rule so bare and unlovely. I wander around in front

of the building and gloomily contemplate the thirty-foot-wide strip of beautiful lawn which is of no earthly use to my children, but is dear to the heart of our local Improvement Association.

10:00: Now it is time for recess, and three hundred Lower School children pour out on the playground. Miss Waring, my ace teacher of the seven-year-olds, says the Lower School teachers are considerably upset over the insistence of the physical-education supervisor that the schoolyard shall be highly organized at this time into many group games into which each child must fit, whether he wants to play or not. And what do *I* think about it? I agree that the scheme seems mechanical and unchildlike and make a mental note to call the supervisor. I feel mightily uplifted at the smiles and greetings I receive on all sides. The children seem happy and friendly, and there is a comforting absence of tension. The bell rings, the crowd disappears, and I follow the children into the building.

10:20: For forty minutes I check up on all the classes. It is difficult to make good time on my rounds, for each room host or hostess has something new to tell me or show me or wishes me to join in some group experience. The twelve-year-olds finally corral me and put me to work with the editorial committee of their room newspaper, which is about to blossom forth. I finally extricate myself and continue on my way until I have said "good morning" to everybody, even to Miss Smythe, who gives me the sweet, pained smile of the misunderstood. The rhythm band of the seven-year-olds is going strong in one corner of their classroom, while the school orchestra competes with them for my attention in the auditorium. My rounds end when I have visited Mrs. Flaherty in the cafeteria, have approved her daily menu, and have hunted up the custodian in his engine room to find that the oil burners are working properly.

11:00: The older children have had individual class recesses

since 10:20, and now the whole group is out on the playground for physical education. This eleven-o'clock playground is highly organized, and our efficient Mrs. Cassidy sees to it that every child is playing in one group or another. The teachers appear to like the close organization which is apparent and feel that it eliminates most disciplinary problems likely to arise when three hundred nine- to twelve-year-olds are gathered together on a congested and all-too-small schoolyard.

11:20: I have been collecting from my Lower School teachers accounts of actual experiences in their classrooms over an extended period of time, with the idea of preparing a check list of things that the five-, six-, and seven-year-olds actually do in the course of the day's work. I have forty minutes of profitable research looking over their reports and working out the results in bulletin form. It has been an eye opener to me to find how rich and comprehensive these experiences are for little children. I feel a steadily rising respect for the competence and ingenuity of my primary teachers. It is a comfort to find that each Lower School teacher regards herself in some measure as a teacher of beginning reading and accepts that responsibility cheerfully. By noon the rough draft of the bulletin is completed, and I look forward to refining it through its use during the winter months. A technique such as this is never completely developed; it is always susceptible of improvement.

12:00: A pleasant, relaxed noon hour — a good lunch, pleasant company, and a well-organized noon playground. The only fly in the ointment is the distressing table manners of some of the eleven- and twelve-year-olds who are getting just a little too big for their britches! Also, why not fresh flowers on *all* the tables instead of on only half of them? Obviously, somebody has slipped, "When found, make a note on," as Dickens used to say. I patrol the yard to satisfy myself that the

close organization of games necessitated by six hundred children in the yard at one time is working well.

P.M.

1:00: The district superintendent drops in to ask permission to hold a principals' group conference in our school next month (see p. 248). We are honored. I show him my report on children's interests, which he is good enough to approve, asking for a copy for his own use. He invites me to become a member of a principals' visitation group (see p. 246), and I am glad to accept, as it will give me an opportunity to see the work of four other schools at close range. I take advantage of his visit to speak about Miss X., who worries me. She is moody, irritable, and emotionally upset. The children in her fifth grade and their parents are constantly complaining about her temper, sarcasm, and incessant nagging. The D. S. volunteers to go upstairs and visit her, an offer which I gladly accept.

2:00: The fourth grade has been studying magnetism and has progressed far enough to have some definite results to show. The class president abducts me and seats me in the rear of the room to hear oral and written reports and to inspect the homemade apparatus, which is the pride and joy of the boys in the class. The D. S. happens to see me as he goes down the hall and joins me in enjoying the show. The children have done really well. It is amazing the amount of factual material which has been studied and absorbed. How their vocabularies grow! This is a real learning situation.

2:40: The D. S. reports in my office on the result of his visit to Miss X. He agrees with me that there is something seriously wrong. He will call her to the district office within a few days and have a heart-to-heart talk with her. If he can persuade her to take a leave of absence, that may be the best solution. If she proves obdurate, the personnel director will be asked to secure

physical and psychiatric examinations. Why aren't we smart enough to catch these cases early in the game, before they become so serious? I dislike the pressure placed on us to teach mental hygiene to children, knowing as I do that we should begin with the teachers themselves. So many of them are in a parlous state!

3:50: I have just seen the flag lowered from the tall flagpole in front of our building. My two trumpeters make this an impressive ending to the children's day. We don't orate or say anything at all, just stand at attention and watch and listen. The older children seem to have a reverent attitude which surprises me in this hobbledehoy age.

The P. T. A. meeting is well under way when I reach the auditorium. There seem to be endless reports of one committee and another and another, and I find my attention wandering. I must do something about this, as the audience is restless. The school nurse gives a short health talk, which is practical and helpful and is well received. I make my annual pep talk on the Community Chest, much against my will, as I know only too well what hard financial sledding some of our parents are experiencing this winter. I speak of the need for a new building, and it is easy to see that the apathetic attitude of the parents is based on a very reasonable fear of a higher tax rate next year. I am inspired to tell the parents what I had just seen in the fourth grade and suggest that they let the children in the school put on similar programs at our P. T. A. meetings this year in place of the conventional program which features an "outside" speaker who knows little about our local problems and cares less. The parents perk up at once and apparently approve heartily. It is easy to see that each mother hopes to see her own child shine in public!

4:00: Miss Dorrance, who handles our top sixth-grade class which will go shortly to junior high school, the sub-

stitute clerk, the head custodian, and I hold our close-of-day conference to check up on the day's work and to discuss the program for tomorrow. We make ourselves some hot coffee and talk informally over the coffee cups. Miss Dorrance is an institution in the school and an ever-present help in time of trouble. She knows all the parents in our district and most of their personal problems. Her cool judgment and her warm heart make her an invaluable member of our faculty. The regular clerk and custodian are equally competent and equally helpful. We make a good team.

And so the day ends.

No one day in the life of the elementary-school principal is exactly like any other day, but the account given above is a fair cross-section of the problems which must be met. It will be observed that, in general, these typical daily experiences of the principal divide into the management of people; the management of things; and the direction of learning. In order, therefore, to use as simple an organization of the principal's duties as possible, we shall build our discussion around two ideas: the principal as manager and the principal as director of learning.

Note in the daily log the number of items which involve managing people:

The custodian reports trouble in the heating plant; a substitute clerk arrives; a teacher reports missing books; a teacher reports an over-waxed floor; a parent enters her children in the school; the P. T. A. president gives notice of a meeting; a child reports his teacher absent; a substitute teacher reports for duty; a fellow principal phones for help; a parent complains by letter; a child is disciplined and a teacher rebuked; a primary teacher discusses physical education; children discuss their classroom work with the principal; the cafeteria manager reviews her menu; the custodian reports that his immediate troubles are over; the principal gathers with children and teachers for luncheon; the district superintendent visits the principal; an unsatisfactory teacher's record is dis-

cussed; the members of the P. T. A. are addressed; principal, teacher, clerk, and custodian close the day's work together.

These instances show very clearly how much of the principal's time is devoted to personal relationships, to the problem of handling people tactfully, helpfully, and effectively.

A classroom teacher said to the writer not long ago, "I like one thing about my principal. She knows how to run the machinery of our school so well that she frees us from many of the little irritations and annoyances that usually wear the teacher down." The classroom teacher likes, very much indeed, to feel that her principal is a *good manager*, that he can organize a school effectively and keep it running smoothly. He must organize his office so as to serve the school well; he must plan and administer the school clerk's duties; he must assign classes to teachers; he must develop yard and other time schedules with fairness to all the parties concerned; he must manage the cafeteria; he must keep adequate records; and so on through a mass of detail which should never be allowed to overwhelm him or to confuse the persons with whom he works.

Maintenance is a phase of management. After all, the school principal is the responsible director of an investment in land, buildings, equipment, and supplies amounting to a good many thousands of dollars, and he is required to maintain his plant in good condition. The buildings must not be allowed to deteriorate for lack of care, the schoolyard must be kept in good condition, the heating plant must be kept in repair, the windows must be washed frequently, the halls and classrooms must be swept, the furniture must be renewed at intervals. All this takes time, but is well spent if it contributes to the comfort and happiness of the persons who spend their days in the school. The elementary-school principal needs, therefore, to be a good "keeper-upper."

Important as are the management of persons and the management of things, we must realize that they are means to an end and not ends in themselves. They justify themselves only in so far as they contribute to the children's learning. One of

the problems of the principal is to budget his time wisely so as to devote a minor part of his day to the material aspects of his job and the major part to supervision, in the best sense of that much-abused term. The principal, therefore, needs above all to be competent in the most important phase of his work, to be a successful *director of the learning experiences* of his boys and girls.

II. Qualities Essential to Success as a Principal

Since this book is addressed not only to principals in service but also to teachers who wish to become principals, the following paragraphs may prove helpful to applicants for the position of elementary-school principal. They may also interest superintendents who are selecting persons for a principalship.

1. *A profile*

Judging by the records of the past few years, what are the characteristics of the successful applicant? He is probably between thirty and forty years of age. He has the type of personality which appeals favorably to fellow teachers, children, parents, and the general public. If a man, he is well groomed and would be accepted by a casual acquaintance as a successful business man. If a woman, she is appropriately and attractively dressed. The applicant meets people with poise and confidence, speaks in a pleasant, cultivated voice, and uses good taste and good judgment in talking about himself and his work. He has a well-controlled sense of humor. He appears to enjoy contacts with people and is versed in the social amenities. He bears the marks of good birth and good breeding. Obviously, he has a rich cultural background, and his conversation is not restricted to school affairs.

He is a successful classroom teacher who enjoys the company of children and guides their learning wisely and effectively. He obtains results, as evidenced by the school-and-

home records of his pupils after they leave his classroom. Quite often, he has had extended experience as a training or demonstration teacher and is thoroughly experienced in supervisory methods. He has had a rich background of experience in several elementary schools and has been successful in adjusting himself to various types of children.

His record shows that he is popular with children, fellow teachers, and parents, not only because of his success as a teacher and because of his personality, but also because of his sterling character. He makes decisions promptly and wisely and preserves his independence of thought and action without being opinionated or militant.

He has taken a keen interest in the general welfare of the schools with which he has been connected. His sphere of influence extends far beyond his classroom into the life of the entire school and into the homes represented by the children he teaches. He is always willing to assume responsibility for duties and enterprises which are assigned him and is a tower of strength to his principal. He is even-tempered and does not allow the petty irritations of the day's work to upset his poise or his sense of humor.

He possesses a modern philosophy of education which he carries out successfully in his daily work. He thinks through his educational problems slowly and deliberately and is not unduly influenced by current educational fads. He has an attractive classroom and in it has set up an environment which provides rich experiences for his children. He guides experience so that it may result in learning and understanding. He builds good study habits. He develops self-reliance, self-respect, and independence in his pupils.

He values the friendship, respect, and confidence of the parents of his pupils. He makes every effort to co-operate fully with fathers and mothers to the end that their children may grow fully in all directions in which growth is possible. He is as alert to the physical, social, and emotional needs of children as he is to their intellectual needs. He takes an active part in the work of parent organizations.

He has a rich, full, and varied personal life outside of school hours. He has many interests beyond the field of education. He is well read and widely traveled. His companionship is sought by men and women in other professions than teaching. He is a good conversationalist. He is, in other words, a civilized adult.

He is modest. He has a professional point of view toward the profession in which he is engaged. He is a student of education, not only in university courses, but through his own thinking and reading. He is well informed on educational progress. He is willing and anxious to learn from others. He has neither time nor desire to engage in school politics or to participate in petty, personal gossip.

Finally, he is a healthy, wholesome, genial, and well-poised person. He is a truly integrated personality. He leads the good life.

2. *The personal equation*

The successful elementary-school principal must be adequate in each of the three major aspects of his work — personnel problems, management problems, and the direction of learning. He should be able to answer the following questions in the affirmative.

Will you show the ability to handle people — children, teachers, parents, citizens, laborers — wisely and skillfully? Do petty personal conflicts irritate you unduly or can you laugh them off? Do you know how to "win friends and influence people"?

Will you be a good manager? Can you organize the school machine promptly and effectively and keep it running smoothly so as to free teachers from unnecessary routine matters? Can you keep a score of details in your mind at the same time and not be bothered or confused?

Will you be able to supervise the learning activities of children through participation and co-operation with teachers, parents, and supervisors? Are you sensitive to the needs and interests of children?

Are you alert to community resources – human and material? Will you be able to see your job in larger terms than those of your own school building?

Are you old enough to be wise and young enough to be flexible? Are you sure you are not "sot" in your ways?

Are you sympathetic with the problems of underprivileged children, or must you have a "nice" school of "white" children in a good district?

Can you take it on the chin and come back for more without losing your temper? Can you be impersonal? Can you adapt yourself successfully to any situation in which you find yourself?

Have you the force of character to assume responsibility and to make decisions promptly and wisely, instead of depending upon rule and precedent? Are you able to co-operate with others? Will you be honest at all times with your teachers? Will you treat them as human beings rather than as dependent children? Will you accept direction gracefully without surrendering your own independence and personal integrity?

Finally, will you be more interested in helping children to grow or in helping yourself to "get ahead"?

Notes on Chapter One

1. Otto, Henry J., *Elementary School Organization and Administration.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1934. This is a standard textbook in its field and one of the very best. A good manual to be kept on the principal's desk.

2. Kyte, George C., *The Principal At Work.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1941. This follows the traditional analysis of the principal's job – supervision, administration, public relations, clerical work, appraisals, etc.

3. Reinoehl, Charles M., and Fred C. Ayer, *Classroom Administration and Pupil Adjustment.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1940. This book, according to the authors, deals with everything that the teacher does exclusive of the direction of learning. It will open the eyes of the principal to the importance of the teacher as an administrator.

4. Jacobson, Paul B., and William C. Reavis, *Duties of School*

Principals. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941. This volume of 780 pages covers all phases of the principal's duties. From the standpoint of the elementary-school principal much of the value is lost, since the major emphasis throughout the book is on the secondary field.

5. Brueckner, Leo J., and others, *The Changing Elementary School.* New York: Inor Publishing Company, 1939. A publication of the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. It contains many passages of interest to all principals.

6. Reavis, William C., and others, *The Elementary School: Its Organization and Administration.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1938 (revised edition). This book contains the most complete analysis available of the elementary-school principalship and follows the conventional arrangement familiar in books of its kind.

7. Caswell, Hollis L., *Education in the Elementary School.* New York: American Book Company, 1942. This is a good general introduction by a recognized authority.

8. The principal will find it helpful to possess the yearbooks of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association and of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction (now the Department of Supervision and Curriculum). A list of the more significant yearbooks appears below:

Department of Elementary School Principals

16th Yearbook	*Appraising the Elementary School Program*	1937
17th Yearbook	*Newer Practices in Reading*	1938
18th Yearbook	*Enriching the Curriculum*	1939
19th Yearbook	*Meeting Special Needs*	1940
20th Yearbook	*Language Arts in the Elementary School*	1941
21st Yearbook	*In-Service Growth of School Personnel*	1942
22nd Yearbook	*Elementary Schools — The Front Line of Democracy*	1943

Department of Supervision and Curriculum

8th Yearbook	*Materials of Instruction*	1935
9th Yearbook	*The Development of a Modern Program in English*	1936
10th Yearbook	*The Changing Curriculum*	1937
11th Yearbook	*Cooperation: Principles and Practice*	1939
12th Yearbook	*Newer Instructional Practices of Promise*	1940
13th Yearbook	*Mental Hygiene*	1941
14th Yearbook	*Americans All*	1942
15th Yearbook	*Leadership at Work*	1943

9. *A List of Educational Periodicals for the Elementary-School Principal*

Journal of the National Education Association. 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. $2.00 a year.

Education Today. Progressive Education Association, 221 West 57th Street, New York, New York. $3.00 a year.

Education for Victory. U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C. $1.00 a year.

American School Board Journal. 407 East Michigan Street, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. $3.00 a year.

National Elementary Principal. Department of Elementary School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. $3.00 a year.

The Nation's Schools. 101 Park Avenue, New York, New York. $2.00 a year.

The School Executive. 470 Fourth Avenue, New York, New York. $2.00 a year.

School Management. 52 Vanderbilt Avenue, New York, New York. $1.00 a year.

The Parents' Magazine. 52 Vanderbilt Avenue, New York, New York. $2.00 a year.

Childhood Education. Association for Childhood Education, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D.C. $2.50 a year.

Elementary School Journal. Department of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. $2.50 a year.

Journal of Educational Research. Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois. $3.60 a year.

CHAPTER TWO



The Principal as Manager of People

WHEN a newly-assigned principal enters upon his duties, the social groups with whom he will come in contact are, in this order:

Noncertified or nonteaching personnel
Certified personnel — teachers, supervisors, etc.
Children
Parents and other citizens
The general public

All these make constant demands upon the time, strength, knowledge, tact, and diplomacy of the principal, and he needs to know his relationship toward them. Reference to children is omitted in this chapter, as the subject is treated in Chapter V.

I. Noncertified Personnel

1. *The custodian or janitor*

There are several common or garden varieties of custodians, and the principal needs to learn to recognize them on sight, since custodians come and go. The most exasperating type is the shiftless, ineffective person who is working merely for his pay check and who cuts corners whenever he feels sure that no one is looking. The most difficult type is the custodian

who is exceedingly competent as far as the mechanics of his job are concerned, but who is crabby, scrappy, and irritable and keeps the faculty in a turmoil. The most dangerous type is the custodian who assumes the role of principal and attempts to dictate the policies of the school. Each represents a personnel problem which calls for all the patience, insight, and executive ability which the principal possesses. A good, firm hand is indicated, and unless the sinner repents, he should be replaced as promptly as possible. There is no excuse for a dirty, unkempt, and grimy school plant or for insolence or interference on the part of the custodian. Unfortunately, many principals put up with unsatisfactory service in this respect, in order to save themselves the unpleasantness of "having a row." They should be reminded that one can pay too high a price for peace.

Once in a blue moon, the principal finds a custodian who is a veritable jewel. The author recalls going to a new and extremely difficult school. The principal was very young, very green, and, we suspect, not very competent. The custodian had been a resident of the district for many years. He knew all the children and the families from which they came. He knew the social, economic, and financial circumstances of each family. He had the respect of all and the affection of many. He was a born diplomat who possessed infinite tact and patience. He took the young principal in hand and slowly and patiently taught him the ropes. Unfailingly the young principal attempted to put his foot in his mouth every time he opened it, but the custodian prevented catastrophe at the eleventh hour and indicated the correct solution to a problem. The only thing that can be said on behalf of the young principal is that he had the sense to accept guidance and profit by it.

If the principal has such a treasure among custodians, let him cultivate the custodian assiduously. He should be made to feel that he is a partner with the principal in all school enterprises which affect the general welfare. There is a type of principal who feels that it is beneath his dignity to consider

the custodian as a fellow worker, and who fails to realize that the custodian is just as important an individual in his capacity as the principal is as executive in the school. The custodian is a key person in the school and one whose position merits the most serious consideration. The old attitude that the custodian is merely a glorified day laborer is being rapidly replaced by the more modern conception of the custodian as a professional person.

There are several procedures which experience recommends for handling the personnel problems connected with the custodian:

(1) There should be a clear understanding of the duties of the custodian. An agreement should be reached setting very precise limits as to where his rights and responsibilities begin and end.

It should be made clear that the custodian is not responsible for the educational philosophy of the school. A district superintendent had an experience recently with a custodian who demanded that his principal should order the teachers to discontinue the use of clay and calcimine on the ground that such materials increased the labors of the custodian. He needed to be reminded that the school exists for the children and not for the comfort of the custodian.

(2) All current changes in policy which affect the custodian should be explained to him in full before they are put into effect. No self-respecting person should be asked to follow orders blindly. The custodian should be taken into the principal's confidence and become a participant in the business of making plans for the future.

(3) The principal should take time at regular intervals to go over the entire school plant with the custodian in order to check the maintenance program. Very often the custodian is anxious to have the benefit of the principal's experience and advice, but finds himself repelled by an attitude which indicates clearly that the principal doesn't want to be bothered.

(4) In case of friction between custodian and teachers, the matter should be brought promptly to a head and the princi-

pal's decision should be regarded as final. Occasionally, a principal allows a comparatively minor disagreement to smoulder under the surface until it breaks into open flame.

The custodian who is constantly making articles of classroom equipment for the teachers needs to be watched until the principal satisfies himself that the custodian is doing this as a contribution toward the welfare of the school, and not as a little personal "racket" intended to add substantially to the custodian's income.

(5) The custodian's relation to the children in the school should be clearly defined. There are certain phases of discipline in halls, in lavatories, and in the schoolyard in which the custodian has a perfect right to participate. There are other phases of discipline in which the interference of the custodian might precipitate a bitter neighborhood row which would involve the school in serious trouble.

Undue familiarity toward teachers or children on the part of the custodian should be checked at its first occurrence. In general, the custodian who attempts familiarity with a teacher or a child should be promptly dismissed.

(6) In a large school, the relationships of the head custodian and his assistants should be carefully watched. If the head custodian is a man and his assistants are women, or vice versa, distressing problems may arise which need to be handled by the principal promptly and decisively. The woman assistant custodian is often at a disadvantage in working under a man.

(7) The personal appearance of the custodian should be such as to invite respect. The unshaven, untidy custodian does not inspire confidence in his ability.

2. *The clerk*

For most adults who visit the school for the first time, the elementary-school clerk establishes a relationship between the school and the visitor which is likely to leave a lasting impression. If it be true that a principal can make or break a school, it is equally true that a clerk can make or break her principal. A friendly, cheery, and cordial greeting makes the

visitor feel that his presence is welcome, while the opposite attitude antagonizes the visitor and makes the ensuing interview with the principal unnecessarily acid and difficult.

Good management requires that principal and clerk should have a clear mutual understanding of the duties of each, so that there may be a just division of labor and no overlapping. In general, the clerk (*a*) meets the public, (*b*) keeps clerical and financial records, (*c*) acts as storekeeper in the supply room, and (*d*) relieves the principal of certain routine duties. If the clerk has been well trained for her position, has had sufficient experience to make her helpful, has a pleasing personality, is diplomatic and prudent in handling people, and likes her job, there should be few managerial problems in her case. There is only one phase of her work which the principal needs to watch with an eagle eye until he assures himself that the clerk can be trusted, and that is in her personal relations with the teachers in the school. The ideal school clerk sees all, hears all, knows all — and says nothing, except to her principal. If she becomes too intimate with any of the teachers, the temptation is very great to tell them about matters which should be held confidential between clerk and principal. If she is aggressive as well as unusually competent, she eventually becomes principal — or thinks she has, and begins to issue orders to the teachers. ("Your register is incorrect, Miss Smith; please don't let that happen again.") The wise and far-seeing principal should nip this attitude in the bud before it has a chance to grow and spread, because an aggressive clerk can ruin both the principal and the school, as well as put an end to her own usefulness.

3. *The cafeteria manager*

In a small school, the cafeteria manager is the cook, and she may or may not be assisted by a woman laborer to do the routine jobs of preparing materials, washing dishes, and cleaning. In a large school, the employment of a cook and several laborers may free the cafeteria manager to devote most of her time to supervision. In either case, ability to handle

people, an attractive personality, and a thorough knowledge of her field are three imperatives in the selection of a person for this important position. The cafeteria manager is constantly in contact with children, teachers, parent helpers, and visitors, as well as with her own assistants, and a nervous, irritable, impatient, or crabby person or a woman who is incurably "sot" in her ways should never be employed. The manager must also be able to hold conferences on diet and nutrition with teachers and parents in so effective a way as to insure lasting results. In addition, she should have had sufficient training in aesthetics to maintain her domain in spotless condition and to make it attractive through her selection of furniture and her arrangement of flowers and other decorations on the tables. Obviously a person who is merely "a good plain cook" does not fill the requirements.

4. *Workmen*

From a central office come carpenters, painters, plumbers, locksmiths, electricians, gardeners, and delivery men with loads of gravel, supplies, or equipment. Inevitably they arrive without notice and at the most inopportune time. No old-timer in the school business has ever unraveled the annual mystery of why a school building lies vacant and unattended during the long summer vacation, only to have its floors torn up and replaced as soon as the school gets comfortably under way in September. The principal is in a difficult position with regard to these casual laborers. Their immediate bosses are located in a central office, and the great majority of the laborers do not recognize the authority of the principal and do not hesitate to indicate that the principal had better mind his own business. One of the first strategic moves which the principal has to take is to cultivate the "head man" in the maintenance department and establish a friendly relationship which will assist the principal in controlling a difficult situation. In school systems employing a district foreman, who has entire charge of the maintenance program in a number of school plants, the problem is greatly simplified. The district

foreman's co-operation and friendship should be sought and made the basis of a good maintenance program. Since the day laborers report, under this arrangement, direct to the district foreman, it becomes possible for the principal to have nearly entire control of maintenance personnel. Promptness, workmanship, results, and courtesy toward teachers and children are the elements in the situation which should be checked by the principal at regular intervals. Undue familiarity by a workman with a child or a teacher is cause for the immediate expulsion of the offender from the school.

II. Certified Personnel

Teachers will smile at the idea of their being "managed," but the fact remains that it is no easy task for a principal to so manage his faculty as to maintain a good working spirit in the school and to secure happy, whole-hearted co-operation throughout the official family. How shall it be accomplished? The solution appears to lie in the answers to two questions: 1. What has the principal a reasonable right to expect of a teacher? 2. What has the teacher a reasonable right to expect of a principal?

1. *What has the principal a reasonable right to expect of a teacher?*

First, that she shall be competent in the sense that she is well prepared for her position through proper training and experience, has adequate knowledge of the subjects she is required to teach, has the requisite teaching ability, commands the respect of her pupils, preserves proper control over the children, and is both able and willing to co-operate with principal, fellow teachers, supervisors, and other employees of the school district with whom she comes in contact, as well as with parents and other laymen who are in touch with her school. Second, that she shall possess the physical strength necessary for the proper discharge of her duties. Third, that she shall be willing to accept responsibility for her share of the

general welfare of the school as a whole; and fourth, that she shall be an adequate human being, one whose personality and character add to the human resources of the school.

2. *What has the teacher a reasonable right to expect of a principal?*

First, that he shall be competent in the sense that he is well prepared for the principalship by training and experience. Second, that he shall be able to command her respect by his appearance, personality, and character. Third, that he shall show evidence of marked executive ability – the power to meet everyday problems, consider several solutions to each, find the right solution, act upon it promptly, and stand firmly by his decision. Fourth, that he shall be a reasonable human being, kind, patient, tolerant, and understanding.

All these may be considered the "minimum essentials" requisite for the "good life" in a school. Over and above them are other less tangible requirements. In working with more than three thousand elementary teachers over a long period of time the writer is prepared to say quite definitely that the quality which teachers value most in a principal is plain, old-fashioned honesty. It is a sad commentary upon our principals that teachers make so much of this point, because it implies very pointedly that many principals are not honest – not dishonest in regard to money matters nor dishonest in the accepted sense, but dishonest in their failure to lay the cards on the table and tell the truth. For example, a principal regards a teacher as mediocre in ability, or deficient in preparation, or weak in discipline, or careless about getting results with children. The principal goes to her superior, usually the district superintendent, and suggests that the teacher be transferred. The superintendent transfers the teacher, who promptly demands of the principal, "Why am I being transferred?" The principal replies, "Why, *my dear!* I just can't understand it. I really believe Mr. L. (the superintendent) has it in for you. You *know* how much I like your work. I just can't *see* how I can get along without you." The prin-

cipal in this case is downright dishonest, and no milder phrase does the situation justice. Or again, a substitute teacher, who knows that her professional future depends upon her rating by the principal, inquires of the principal what she thinks of the teacher's work. The principal answers, "Why, you are one of my best young teachers." The teacher goes away comforted, but when the next eligible list for promotion appears, the teacher's name is far down on the list. When she investigates, she finds her principal has rated her "average," while a friend in another school received "superior," and another friend in a third school received "outstanding." When the young teacher faces the principal and requests an explanation, the principal blushes and replies, "Why, my *dear*! you know I never mark my substitutes more than average. I must save my good marks for my regular teachers!"

A third example: The district superintendent visits a teacher who proves to be very unsatisfactory as a classroom teacher. Order is poor, her planning is hazy, results are uncertain, and her attitude casual. He talks the case over with the principal, who states that Miss A. is far from meeting the requirements for a successful teacher, and the superintendent promises to help. He calls the teacher to his office and states the case frankly and fully as he sees it. The teacher replies ruefully, "Well, this *is* a shock! I have always supposed my work to be satisfactory." The superintendent asks, "Hasn't your principal pointed out your weak spots?" The teacher answers, "She has never talked over my work with me." The superintendent verifies this fact, and the principal is in for a bad half hour.

Another quality which teachers admire in a principal is his ability to make up his mind promptly and stand by his guns once a decision is made. We have too many principals in our schools who are weak-kneed, wishy-washy, and indecisive. In a tight spot, they jump to the top of the fence and stay there until the danger is over.

Still another quality desired by teachers in their principal is that he shall know where he is going, educationally speaking,

and be actually on the way to a clearly visible destination. The teacher is in a bad way when her principal has no philosophy of education, no general policy for his school, no definite plan of action, and resorts, in lieu of all these, to improvising a program from hour to hour.

Teachers admire a principal who permits them to walk, not run, to the nearest educational exit to the desired goal. For example, the principal is trying to modernize and rejuvenate a school which is admittedly formal, traditional, and generally behind the times. The teachers are willing to help, but the principal rushes his fences. "Now, girls, commencing next Monday, we shall be on a unit of work program." The result is confusion worse confounded; the teachers become nervous and jittery, the children are confused, and the parents are suspicious.

3. *Rating the teacher*

In nearly all school systems in the United States, the principal has the responsibility for rating teachers as part of their individual records. Since most rating sheets are based upon a three- or five-point scale, it is little wonder that teachers look upon ratings merely as expressions of the principal's personal likes and dislikes. The following check list [1] should assist the principal in arriving at a partially objective decision on the merits of his teachers.

Items	*Outstanding*	*Satisfactory*	*Unsatisfactory*
	(Check each item in *one* column only)		
I. *Personal Characteristics*			
1. Ethical standards	High	Moderate	Low
2. Appreciation of children	Abundant	Moderate	Little
3. Enthusiasm	Abounding	Moderate	Lacking
4. Cheerfulness	Marked	Moderate	Lacking
5. Patience	Abundant	Moderate	Little
6. Courtesy	Genuine	Conventional	Lacking
7. Tact	Marked	Moderate	Lacking
8. Poise	Marked	Moderate	Unstable
9. Sense of humor	Strong	Moderate	Lacking
10. Personality	Outstanding	Ordinary	Negative

[1] Courtesy of Los Angeles City School District.

Items	*Outstanding*	*Satisfactory*	*Unsatisfactory*
	(Check each item in *one* column only)		
II. *Skill in Teaching*			
1. Class management and control	Expert	Ordinary	Incompetent
2. Organization of room	Socialized	Formal	Inadequate
3. Ability to plan work	Thorough	Passable	Inadequate
4. Ability to carry out plan	Marked	Ordinary	Little
5. Use of modern methods in teaching	Consistent	Occasional	Little
6. Use of pupils' time	Efficient	Fair	Wasteful
7. Resourcefulness	Marked	Moderate	Little
8. Ability to get results	Marked	Moderate	Little
III. *Results with Children*			
1. Pupils' attitude toward school	Enthusiastic	Passive	Indifferent
2. Pupils' attitude toward teacher	Friendly	Passive	Hostile
3. Pupils' attitude toward classmates	Co-operative	Agreeable	Indifferent
4. Pupils' effort	Earnest	Sporadic	Lacking
5. Pupils' responsibility	Marked	Moderate	Little
6. Pupils' initiative	Marked	Moderate	Little
7. Pupils' growth			
(a) in academic work	Marked	Moderate	Little
(b) in social relations	Marked	Moderate	Little
(c) in character	Marked	Moderate	Little
IV. *Co-operation*			
1. Success in working with children and adults	Marked	Moderate	Little
2. Interest in school and community as a whole	Marked	Moderate	Indifferent
3. Accuracy and promptness in carrying out assigned duties	Unfailing	Variable	Poor
4. Regularity of attendance and punctuality	Unfailing	Variable	Negligent
V. *Professional Growth*			
1. General and professional attitude	Ethical	Conventional	Unethical
2. Evidence of professional improvement	Marked	Moderate	Little
3. Willingness to accept guidance	Marked	Moderate	Little

The principal must be prepared to be challenged as to the accuracy of his ratings. He may meet any reaction from the

mild, "I can hardly understand it," to the downright, "That's a lie, and you know it." The heaviest cross the principal has to bear is to be told, "This is the first time my work has *ever* been questioned. Mr. X. (the principal's predecessor) *always* thought so much of me!" The poor dear is probably correct. Mr. X. loafed on the job and lacked the courage to tell the teacher honestly where she was at fault. It will be well therefore to be able to support each item checked by specific instances.

4. *Choosing and managing teachers*

Beyond the minimum requirements which the principal sets for himself in choosing teachers are certain intangibles which deserve mention. He should realize that teachers trained before 1920 and those trained since 1930 are worlds apart in theory and practice. While there are exceptions, the older teachers are conservative, traditional, and enamored of subject matter; the younger teachers have the modern point of view toward education and are interested primarily in the continuous growth of the children. If the principal's faculty is composed entirely of teachers of the pre-1920 period, it is likely to unite joyfully and enthusiastically against him if he attempts to modernize their methods too hastily. Good management here is to replace faculty members who retire, transfer, or take leave of absence with younger teachers, so that the modern spirit may begin to permeate the school. In the meantime, there is usually one member, at least, of the older group who may be led into newer and better educational procedures.

The principal may be in a school where numbers are evenly divided between formalists and progressives. Here he needs to exercise good sense and diplomacy, as among the formalists may be teachers who are good disciplinarians, excellent instructors, and persons of sterling character. If such teachers really see children as persons, are sensitive to their needs, and are anxious to see them develop to their fullest capacities, it is doubtful if any attempt should be made to

change them. Parents like them, children respect them, and their contribution to the school may be very great. There is no good reason why "essentialist" and "progressive" should not live in peace in the same school so long as each respects the opinions of the other and grants her the right to seek Heaven by her own route.

One of the serious problems of management lies in the school where the "Old Guard" – a majority group of teachers who have been in the school for many years – is so powerful that it is able to make or break principals, accept or refuse teachers assigned to the school, make school policies, and control the parents. A principal newly assigned to such a situation needs to be wise and patient, but he should hit hard at the first sign of teacher-domination of the principal's policy. When the teachers learn that the principal intends to command the ship, they may surrender more or less gracefully. If they attempt to undermine him, he should act promptly to have two or three of the ringleaders transferred, if the school is part of a large system, or dismissed if the school is the only school in its district. If war must come, let the principal take the offensive and start firing at the most auspicious moment. Fortunately, it seldom comes to this. By being careful not to see too much, by overlooking many things, by extending his influence over the parents, and by consolidating his position with those members of the faculty who are secretly out of sympathy with the Old Guard, he should be able to solve his problem by peaceful means.

Teachers like to know what is expected of them. If the principal, at the beginning of his work in the school, holds before his teachers a few simple, attainable objectives, he will reassure them and give them a motive for co-operation. A simple, sensible program is given herewith:

Let our school be a *friendly* school.
Let our school be a *lively* school.
Let our school be a *united* school.
Let our school be sensitive to the *needs of children.*

A series of informal conferences on each of these objectives,

to clarify meanings and suggest techniques, could well replace the usual sterile faculty meeting.

5. *Three types of principal*

In his management of teachers let the principal decide which of the three prevalent types of elementary principal he aspires to be: an autocrat, a benevolent despot, or a democratic leader. By and large, our American elementary schools are autocracies rather than democracies: the principal is principal and teachers are teachers, and the gulf between is wide and deep. The superintendent issues orders to the principal, the principal to the teachers, and the teachers to the children, to the accompaniment of a good deal of window dressing on "how truly democratic we are." We have known from direct observation cases of autocratic domination of teachers by principals which would make Hitler blush with envy — "Any teacher in this building who asks for a transfer is disloyal to *Me* and will be rated 'unsatisfactory' on my next quarterly report"; "We are 100 percent in everything in this school, and if any teacher fails to contribute to the Community Chest she will be reported to the superintendent," and so on. Under such circumstances the teacher has recourse to one of two plans of action, to shoot the principal on sight, or to ask for a transfer and take her chances.

The benevolent despot is cut from quite another piece of cloth. He (or she) is sincere, honest, hard-working, truly anxious to do right by teachers and pupils, but trusts nobody but himself. As a result, the planning, evaluating, and policy making of the school appear in a bulletin from the principal's office, and teachers merely follow instructions. A favorite teacher is allowed to accompany the lady principal around the building, proudly carrying the principal's handbag from which she produces at needed intervals a handkerchief, the key to Room 13, and the principal's second strongest pair of eyeglasses. Through this handmaiden, news of impending events trickles down to the other teachers.

The principal who is a democratic leader is still rare in our

elementary schools. He needs to remember that he is merely a teacher who has been freed from classroom responsibility and equipped with a title and an increased salary, rather than a new and unique creation of the Almighty. On the other hand, no matter how truly democratic he may be in word and deed, there are times when the exigencies of the moment may require him to take hold of a situation firmly and decisively and to issue orders which must be instantly and effectively obeyed.

It is popular both with principals and the textbooks to classify teachers into groups on the basis of ability, on the basis of experience, on the basis of emotional types, and so on, but the practice appears dubious, because each of us is made up of many personalities within a single body, and we tend to differentiate our behavior in response to the strains and stresses to which we are subjected. No superior teacher is always superior; she has her bad days like everybody else. Even the mediocre teacher may show a sudden spurt into something so good that it surprises everyone, most of all herself. Let the principal realize that there is no such thing as a perfect faculty. Let him accept his faculty as he finds it, try to help each teacher to develop to the fullest extent of her capacities, realize that it takes all kinds of people to make a world, be everlastingly kind and patient, and above all, play no favorites. There is nothing which teachers resent quite so much as the presence within the school of a little court which basks comfortably in the light from the throne. "I'm so sorry, Miss X., to give you double yard duty, but dear Miss Y. is not very strong. I'm sure you'll be delighted to take her yard duty and Miss Z.'s orchestra, and if you have the opportunity, you won't forget to lend a helping hand in the cafeteria, will you, *dear*?"

6. *Supervisors and other representatives of the central office*

In city systems the supervisors are familiar and not always welcome visitors to the school. To many a principal, they represent his most difficult personnel problems, both directly as

regards himself, and indirectly through supervisor-teacher relationships. It is common to divide supervisors into two groups, the "regular" or "academic" supervisors who direct learning experiences in the grades in content and skill subjects, and the "special" supervisors – art, music, physical education, science, etc. Historically, one group represents the early formal curriculum; the other, the "fads and frills" which appeared in our elementary curriculum at a much later date.

As a matter of fact, three types of supervision are found in daily operation in our elementary schools: "showing" the teacher, "bossing" the teacher, and "helping" the teacher. Thus the supervisor plays one of three roles: the expert working with the layman, the executive inspecting a subordinate, the fellow craftsman living with and working with a fellow teacher. Personnel problems rise and fall according to the individual supervisor and the type of supervision which she affects.

The conception of a supervisor as a fellow workman and helper is, as has been pointed out, a very recent development. In many school systems it is still unknown. The older type of supervision-as-inspection still persists to an alarming extent and makes the principal earn his salary as personnel director.

It should be understood that when the supervisor comes to work in the school rather than just "visit," she will be courteous enough to report to the principal before meeting the teachers and will report again upon leaving the school. The principal, on his part, will co-operate by accompanying the supervisor as often as possible. Many an efficient and kindly supervisor has been balked in her efforts to help teachers by the indifference and downright laziness of the "armchair" principal. The principal should view proceedings with an open and tolerant mind, and evince a sincere desire to learn. If a rigid, formal teacher openly opposes a forward-looking and tactful supervisor, the principal should assist the supervisor by a frank talk with the offender. Certainly, a principal should stand by and support his teachers, but his responsibility in this respect ends in the face of open opposition and rebellion.

Again, opposition to a supervisory program often develops from ignorance of what is required, from a lack of sufficient clarity in its presentation, or from too hasty campaigns which do not allow teachers time to grow in the indicated direction. A family conference of teachers, supervisor, and principal will clear the atmosphere and restore peace and understanding. Let patience, good humor, and tolerance be the guiding stars.

The elementary-school principal's relations with his district or assistant superintendent or to the superintendent himself should be friendly and co-operative. If this is not true, the fault lies on one side or the other, and possibly on both. If the superintendent (or his assistant) is domineering, overbearing, and generally blown up by a sense of his own importance, the principal is in for a bad time. If the superintendent knows little or nothing about education but keeps his job by playing politics, the professionally minded principal reacts outwardly with civility and inwardly with contempt. With both types the principal needs to keep his head and guard his tongue because, regardless of the nature of the man in authority over him, he owes an allegiance to the system in which he works and to the board of education by which he is employed which transcends personal differences. Certainly an open break between subordinate and superior will do little good and may deprive the principal of the opportunity to serve his school.

Fortunately for the principal, there are many fine, well-educated, and truly professional school superintendents. The opportunity to work under one of these men is a privilege not to be regarded lightly by the elementary-school principal who is anxious to advance in his profession.

III. Parents and Other Citizens

You are principal of a fairly good-sized school, and you wish to co-ordinate education in home and school. What are some of the practical steps?

1. *The Parent-Teacher Association*

It is probable that this organization existed in your school when you became its principal, and you have learned to assess its value to the school. It is likely to be your first and easiest medium for building up the type of home-school relationships at which you aim.

Presumably you will find one of these situations in your school:

(1) *The P. T. A. is a going concern.* The membership is large and enthusiastic; the meetings are interesting and well attended; the officers are competent and co-operative. The organization abounds in good works. There is an evident desire to do all that the principal and teachers wish done to help the school and the children. Fathers take an active interest in the P. T. A. and give valuable assistance whenever it is needed.

(2) *The P. T. A. is fairly effective.* The spirit of the officers is excellent, but the leadership they supply is mediocre. Membership is fair, but static. A large number of parents in the school district do not belong to the P. T. A., and no particular effort has been made to interest them. Meetings follow the usual routine, are largely given up to reports of various committees, and are totally uninspired. Teachers attend the meetings, but only from a sense of duty. Fathers are apathetic, appearing in small numbers on Dad's night.

(3) *The P. T. A. is very effective and very aggressive.* The officers are militant and unwilling to accept direction or suggestions from the principal. The teachers are whipped into line by P. T. A. officers to attend meetings and give their time and effort toward bazaars, circuses, pageants, and other money-making projects. The suggestion is subtly conveyed to the principal that it is a simple matter to remove principals and teachers, and that the Board of Education is very sensitive to complaints from parents and particularly from the P. T. A. You are told that your predecessor "dear Miss A. *always* cooperated so beautifully!" The present officers are active in club work outside the school, are ambitious for recognition

and preferment, and are a self-perpetuating body. In the councils of the P. T. A., fathers are equally aggressive and a little more crude in hinting to you where you "get off."

(4) *The P. T. A. is dying on its feet.* Poor leadership, uninteresting meetings, lack of direction from your predecessor, and the active opposition of teachers have nearly wrecked the organization.

(5) *The P. T. A. is split into factions bitterly fighting one another.* The "outs" want to be in, and the "ins" are making life miserable for them. As a result, the P. T. A. is a liability to the school rather than an asset.

(6) *There is no P. T. A.* Your predecessor was able but autocratic, and was quite unwilling to tolerate an organization which might weaken her authority. A small group of her cronies among the parents have organized a mothers' club to serve the school. Actually, it is quite ineffective, being very largely a mutual-admiration society.

What are you to do? First some general principles. If there is no P. T. A. in your school, make up your mind that you will have one. You will have your troubles, but the struggle is worth while. Accept responsibility for the success of the P. T. A., whether it is a new one which you institute or an old, long-established institution. Say to yourself, "I will have a *good* P. T. A. in my school, and if it is a failure it will be my fault." One major reason why certain parent-teacher organizations go on the rocks is that the principals concerned have side-stepped their responsibility and laid the blame on any one's shoulders but their own, where the blame really belonged. Let us take each of the six situations listed above and see what can be done.

If your P. T. A. is a going concern, be thankful. Your major responsibility in this case will be to give the P. T. A. the wisest direction and fullest co-operation of which you are capable. Don't let fine people down by laziness, inattention, or carelessness. Follow for a while instead of attempting to lead, if you are new in the school. When you do wish to make your leadership felt, do it tactfully and subtly.

If you really wish to do something constructive under these favorable circumstances, give your P. T. A. a good course in modern elementary education. An excellent textbook for this purpose is Winifred E. Bain's *Parents Look at Modern Education.*[2] The subtitle is illuminating: "A Book to Help an Older Generation Understand the Schools of the New." You will find some powerful ammunition in the chapter, "The Tool Subjects in the Modern Curriculum," to fire at the parent who assures you that the modern school is going to the dogs.

> Teachers, parents, not to mention children themselves, have been gravely concerned about reading as it is taught and learned in school. A halo of importance has been cast over this subject as if it were the most important pursuit in the world. Indeed in some instances the halo has proved to be a dark cloud where children have found reading difficult to learn; they have failed; and teachers and parents have been worried and harassed over the matter.
>
> Well, reading is important, but not as an end in itself. Reading is merely a tool for getting ideas, facts and beauty from the lore which is contained in books.[3]

If you embark on Dr. Bain's book or some other helpful volume akin to it, do not give the fatal impression that you, as a superior being, are laying down the law. Rather give the impression that you, with the mothers, are a fellow seeker after truth.

If your P. T. A. is ineffective in spite of a co-operative attitude, the reason is obvious. It lacks leadership. Allow things to run their course while you extend your acquaintance with as many parents in your school district as possible. As you do so, watch for potential leaders. When you have discovered five or six mothers with personality, executive ability, and a right attitude toward the education of children, invite them into your office, explain your dilemma, and ask them to accept leadership of the organization at the next election of officers. After you have secured their consent, ask as many key people as possible in your school neighborhood to support them.

[2] New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1935.

[3] Bain, *op. cit.*, pp. 156, 157.

When things are well in hand, call in your present officers and tell them frankly what you have done and why, and ask for their support of the new candidates for office. You will be in for a bad half hour, but it pays to be honest.

If your P. T. A. is militant and wishes to keep the principal in his place, you have a real problem on your hands. You may be able to settle the matter peaceably, or you may have to go to war. The first step is to call into your office the officers and executive board of the P. T. A. and tell them calmly and professionally that you are not happy over present conditions and that a change must be made. If you are firm in your attitude, the opposition may see the light and co-operate with you in your plans. If these ladies are resentful and antagonistic, there is little you can do at the moment. Search quietly for leadership outside the ruling clique, and when the way opens, bring into the organization new leaders with a better point of view. Bide your time, act slowly, consolidate your personal following, and take your teachers into your confidence. They can be of great assistance to you.

If your P. T. A. is on its last legs, figuratively speaking, you and your teachers will have to "take over," plan programs, search for better leaders, interest parents in becoming members. If you have programs employing children, parents will come to your meetings and will support you. From that position, your procedure is to develop good leadership, and as new and competent leaders arise, pass your control of the organization over to them.

If the P. T. A. is engaged in a factional war, you are likely to be heartily censured whether you join one camp or the other or stay on the side lines. Again, the solution is to obtain new leaders who have not figured prominently in the dispute, and help them to pick competent assistants from both factions until the friction disappears. This will be a long, slow, painful process and will task your diplomacy to the last degree. Again, be patient; time cures many troubles. As a last resort, and one never to be used until all else has failed, discontinue your parent-teacher association until the scars have healed,

and then revive it under new leadership. Consult the district office before you do this. Often a district president can be of great assistance to you in neighborhood rows.

If there is no P. T. A. in your school, see that one is organized and be sure that it commences its services under the most competent leadership available. The P. T. A. in the right hands can be a tremendous power for good in your school, and you will be pleasurably surprised at the intelligence, sound common sense, and loyalty of the average parent. Parents are people, and they are worth cultivating. In your dealings with them allow for differences in opinion. You will sometimes be wrong and mistaken in your judgments; when that happens, acknowledge the fact freely and frankly, and you will not be the loser thereby.

Mention has been made in a previous chapter of the very important position held by the school clerk in fostering good community relationships. Her relations with the officers of the P. T. A. need to be carefully defined. With the best will in the world on the clerk's part, she will have to be guarded against excessive demands by the organization for clerical work, telephone messages, and errands of various sorts. Here her principal can be of great assistance to her by having a clear understanding with her, with teachers, and with parents as to the exact duties the clerk is to perform and by protecting her in those duties. She must be friendly and cordial and helpful to all, and intimate with none.

2. *The larger community*

The principal needs to remember that behind and beyond his P. T. A. members lies a community of which the P. T. A. is only partially representative. How about those large sectors of the community which are affected only incidentally by that organization? The policy which the elementary principal follows in establishing community relationships depends upon the attitudes towards the school which are present in the community. Yeager [4] lists five attitudes commonly found in com-

[4] William A. Yeager, *Home-School-Community Relations* (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, 1939).

munity life: (1) the community group which opposes public education of any kind, believing that education should be relegated to the home or to religious organizations; (2) the community group which believes in education which is "short and cheap" – the fewest number of school days possible at public expense, and on a bare subsistence level as regards capital outlays, teachers' salaries, supplies, and equipment (Paper-and-pencil education keeps school costs at a low level.); (3) the community group which believes in the education of the 1870's – a traditional conservative education which is largely academic in type based upon satisfying the requirements for college entrance with minor concessions to the "fads and frills"; (4) the group which believes in the education of the early 1900's – a strongly organized liberal elementary school followed by a double-track secondary-school system, one track leading to college, the other to industry and commerce through an adequate program of vocational education; (5) the group which believes in "a progressively child-centered school and program, in which the whole educational process is built around this one centrally dominant thought." [5] In other words, community attitudes range from those found in an Amish community in Pennsylvania to the community found in Winnetka, Illinois, or Moylan, Pennsylvania.

It is popular in certain circles to regard the family as a social institution which is rapidly losing ground.

> If I have distilled any one fact from this past year of intensive experience it is this: that the people of the United States are good people; that they are almost surprisingly modest in their demands upon life; that what they have is precious to them; that what they want is far from unattainable; that what they hope to achieve they are willing to work for – they don't want or expect it to be given to them, they want to earn it.

The paragraph above is taken from the introduction by Mary Carson Cookman to *How America Lives* [6] by J. C. Furnas

[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 123-124.
[6] New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1941.

and the staff of the *Ladies' Home Journal*, a collection of very informal case studies of sixteen American families in various income brackets. Excellent reporting and unusual photographic illustrations make this a delightful and illuminating cross section of American life. Teachers, principals, and parents need to read a book like this – teachers and principals because many of them are incredibly remote from the main currents of life in the American scene; and parents because many of them are so wrapped up in the details of their own limited little circles that they are ignorant of conditions in other social groups, and because of this are prejudiced and often intolerant.

So few teachers see children as persons! So few teachers sense the home conditions from which children come daily to school to be filled up with reading, writing, and arithmetic. So few teachers know what sacrifices in the family living on a limited budget are represented by Mary's new little wash dress or Junior's new corduroys.

The reader may remember that Solomon newly come to the throne of David went to Gibeon, the place of sacrifice, where the Lord appeared to him in a dream by night saying, "Ask what I shall give thee," to which Solomon replied by pointing out that he was a young and untried leader of a vast multitude of people, and compared with David, his father, was but a little child, not knowing how to go out or come in.

> Give therefore thy servant an understanding heart to judge thy people, that I may discern between good and bad.

Because the Lord was pleased with this answer, he promised Solomon the following:

> Behold, I have done according to thy words: lo, I have given thee a wise and an understanding heart; so that there was none like thee before thee, neither after thee shall any arise like unto thee.

Let the principal seek to have a wise and understanding heart. *How America Lives* will surely add to his wisdom and understanding of the boys and girls he serves, and if he can

communicate part, at least, of his gift to the teachers and parents of his school district, so much the better.

3. *The Principal's Cabinet*

If the school is to be truly democratic in practice as well as in theory, the principal cannot afford to place himself in the role of autocrat or dictator, either benevolent or otherwise. He must seek advice and co-operation and be big enough to modify his conduct in the light of other people's ideas.

The Principal's Cabinet is a most effective device for co-ordinating the efforts of principal, teachers, and parents. While it may assume several forms, a good combination is the principal, two teacher representatives, and two parent representatives. The teacher members of the Cabinet should be elected by the teaching corps of the school, one from the primary grades, one from the upper grades. The parent representatives are usually the current P. T. A. president and one of the former presidents. The Cabinet should meet regularly once a month and irregularly on call, whenever an emergency arises. A check of more than sixty Cabinet meetings in a large city system shows that the following topics were discussed with profit:

An effective health program
Character education
Developing the personality of children
Enriching the school environment
Planning trips and excursions
The meaning of the deferred reading program
Grouping on the basis of social maturity
An effective testing program
Organizing the school playground
Organization and management of the school cafeteria
The functions of the school custodian
Behavior problems of children
Neighborhood recreational facilities
Building needs in the school plant
The merits of a shortened noon hour
Manuscript writing
Adjusting the elementary school graduate to junior high school

The functions of the school clerk
The value of a school orchestra
Planning an Open House program
The value of a special teacher in music
Report cards
The teacher's daily program
Developing courtesy among children
The meaning of "progressive education"
The improvement of the schoolyard
How to develop effective P. T. A. programs
Equipment needed by the school
The parent's place in school assemblies
Reaching the parent who does not visit the school
How to share school responsibilities with parents
The techniques of home visits by the teacher

Of the sixty-one schools reporting, fifty-eight felt that positive results were secured. One reported "not any"; one, "not sure"; one, "judgment deferred." Among the positive results named were: new report cards were endorsed; plans were made to purchase instruments for the school orchestra; steps were taken to secure a lunch pavilion; parents agreed to take more responsibility in school affairs, especially in the health program; parents volunteered to help the teachers care for the classrooms and to provide some needed materials; parents, teachers, and principal were brought close together for the first time; parents stated that they understood better the problems of the school; parents of foreign birth volunteered to contribute an exhibit of books in languages other than English for Book Week; parents decided to bring criticisms of the school to the Principal's Cabinet for discussion rather than to allow them to become the subject of neighborhood gossip; parents agreed to shorten overlengthy P. T. A. meetings and try to make them more interesting to teachers; parents were made to feel that they were partners in school enterprises and not intruders; a bulletin service for parents was initiated; all members of the Principal's Cabinet agreed to meet serious school problems frankly and not merely gloss them over; plans were made to secure a new addition to the school; teachers stated that they were convinced at last that parents really wished to

be helpful; teachers were convinced that a parent who brought a complaint to the Principal's Cabinet for discussion was helping rather than hurting the school; steps were taken to secure a more conveniently located branch library and to secure needed parking on an adjacent street; plans were discussed leading to the removal of the fear some parents have of teachers; a better-balanced diet was agreed upon for the cafeteria; parents agreed to help provide transportation for school trips.

Whether the Cabinet is a success or a failure depends upon the attitude of the principal. In general, elementary-school principals may be divided into three groups as regards their attitude toward parents: principals who dislike parents; principals who tolerate parents; and principals who enjoy parents. The secret of success lies in the word "enjoy." The principal who likes people and likes to be with them finds a great source of pleasure in the fathers and mothers whose children attend his school. Such a principal automatically builds up a spirit of understanding and co-operation which is likely to make the Principal's Cabinet a permanent factor for good in the school and throughout the community.

4. *School Meetings — Good and Not So Good*

There are many occasions when the school will act as host to the parents of the school district and to their neighbors who have no children of elementary-school age, but who are sincerely interested in school affairs. Such meetings will vary all the way from an informal conference of a few parents interested in some specific phase of school work — safety or thrift or the graphic arts — to the elaborate festival or pageant. The underlying principle that it is good strategy to induce parents to visit the school is fundamentally sound. The point that needs to be borne in mind and is often forgotten is that the school must not be disrupted in the process. In general, occasions on which parents and neighbors are guests of the school are likely to be of the following types:

(1) *The informal individual visit.* Parents should be made to feel that they are welcome visitors at any time and that

what they see in the classrooms during an unannounced and unexpected visit is characteristic of the everyday life of the school, not something put on for a "show." It is significant that the majority of parents hesitate to make informal visits, and when this is true, there is only one explanation, and that is that they have been made to feel unwelcome. A friendly, cordial, competent teacher has no reason to dislike being visited at any time provided always that the visitor herself is friendly, cordial, and intelligent in her observation. Here the principal has a double responsibility — to educate teachers to the point where informal visits are welcome, and to educate parents in the technique of visiting. In small group conferences and in the larger regular meetings of the parent-teacher association, the principal may profitably instruct parents in the simple rules of making an acceptable informal visit to the classroom:

> Do not knock on the door, but walk in.
>
> Enter by the rear door so as not to be too noticeable.
>
> Greet the teacher briefly and cordially and be seated promptly so as not to interrupt the children in their work.
>
> If the teacher comes up to greet you and does not know you, give her your name and express your pleasure at the opportunity to visit the class.
>
> If children offer to "show you around" or tell you about their work, accept their offer and make the children feel that you are interested and appreciative.
>
> If children are working in groups at various types of activities, feel free to go from group to group and ask questions if you so desire.
>
> If the teacher is engaged in more formal teaching — reading or arithmetic — do not interrupt nor move around.
>
> If you wish to question the teacher as to her procedures, wait until the end of the period or the next dismissal.
>
> Do not stay over-long in any one room; thirty minutes is probably a reasonable time.
>
> Make the children feel that you are a member of the group that you visit with and not merely a grown-up bent on a tour of inspection.

(2) *The large conference group.* This may be an outgrowth of a small conference or may be initiated by the prin-

cipal *de novo* to meet a specific school situation. For example, the policy of organizing the school on the basis of social maturity may have progressed to the point where relatively large numbers of parents are concerned over the matter and want to know "what it is all about." It may be wise, therefore, to issue a general invitation to all those interested to meet you in informal conference, at which time the new procedures are explained, questions are answered, and free discussion, criticisms, and suggestions are encouraged.

(3) *The regular meeting of the Parent-Teacher Association.* To a certain extent, the nature of the regular meeting is conditioned by the rules, regulations, and traditions of the Association, but the principal should feel free to make suggestions likely to add to the profit and pleasure of the occasion. There are three conditions (among others) that tend to discourage attendance — a speaker who fails to interest his audience, a long succession of uninteresting committee reports read by ladies with inaudible voices and poor delivery, and a meager attendance. Let the principal assure himself that the "outside speaker" will be interesting and helpful, that reports will be kept to a minimum, and that meetings will begin on time and end promptly. Officers of the Association should be encouraged to vary the traditional procedure of employing a speaker by presenting a program of children's classroom work given by the children themselves; by having a play written, acted, and directed by the children; by a musical program in which the school orchestra, the rhythm band, and a chorus of mothers unite; by having a group of teachers sit around the conference table with principal and supervisors to discuss school problems so that parents may see the inside workings of the school; by free discussion under able leadership of a group of related school problems. If children appear on the program, let it be with the understanding that they are being used to inform the audience about the work done in the school rather than to exploit individual children to satisfy the vanity of their parents.

5. *Home reports*

There is no form of school contact with the home that has given rise to more irritation between the parties concerned than the school report card. In consequence, an immense amount of time and effort has been expended in attempting to discover the ideal home report, but at the present time, there seems to be no general agreement as to the most desirable form in which it may be cast. In general, home reports the country over tend to fall into the following categories, beginning with the most conventional and traditional type, and ending with the most extreme progressive form of home report!

(*a*) The percentage report. This is a strictly subject-matter report with grades expressed in per cents: Arithmetic 79 per cent, Geography 84 per cent, and so on.

(*b*) The 3- or 5-point scale report. This is also a strictly subject-matter report with grades expressed by 1, 2, 3 (excellent, average, poor); or by 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 (excellent, strong, average, doubtful, poor). Occasionally this type of report uses letters in place of numbers — A, B, C, or A, B, C, D, E, or perhaps H (honors), S (satisfactory), and F (failure).

(*c*) A combination of (*b*) above and a list of specific qualities, habits, or attitudes — punctuality, obedience, industry, self-control, etc.

(*d*) A refinement on (*c*) above to the extent that both subject-matter categories and social attitudes are broken down into component parts; for example, under *Reading* may appear, slightly indented, *Ability to read quickly, Ability to comprehend what is read, Appreciation,* and so on. Under social attitudes, *Co-operation,* for example, may be subdivided into *Shares his belongings with others, Accepts leadership,* and so on, through four or five additional illustrations of co-operation.

(*e*) A complete inventory of the child's physical, intellectual, social, and emotional growth expressed in specific terms. Such a report may appear on large sheets, and each report may consist of four or more pages of closely printed matter.

(*f*) A report blank which contains only the name of the

school, date, and teacher's name to be used by the teacher for a personal note to the parents.

(*g*) A report in narrative form written by the teacher; or, in the middle and upper grades, written by the child himself on his own progress, accompanied by comments by the teacher and concluding with comments by the parents.

Undoubtedly, there can be no one best report card or form for the very good reason that local conditions and sentiment usually dictate the type of home report which the parent demands. There are, however, three principles which apply:

(*a*) The report should contain definite information regarding the child's progress in school.

(*b*) The report should be so simple that the parent will have no difficulty in comprehending what it says.

(*c*) The report should be so devised as to make the parent feel that the school is interested in his child and is anxious to secure the parent's co-operation.

One of the reasons why the elaborate inventory type of report fails to impress the parent favorably is that it attempts to combine two things which should forever remain separate: a simple definite statement to the parent of his child's progress, and an elaborate diagnosis made by the teacher for her own guidance. The parent wishes to know only three things: (*a*) How is my child "getting along"? (*b*) Where is he having difficulty? (*c*) What is being done about it? Being a layman in educational matters, the parent is not equipped to read with any degree of satisfaction a highly technical analysis of the child's problems of physical, mental, and emotional growth. If it is desirable to present such an analysis to the parent, it had better be done in small group conferences or in individual conference. Probably the three-point marking scale which recognizes the fact that, with respect to any one quality, most of us reach a normal accomplishment, while a few of us excel in it and a few are deficient, is as sensible a compromise as we can reach. Whether we measure these differences by 1, 2, and 3; A, B, and C; or "Marked," "Average," and "Deficient" is immaterial. Certainly, we should not attempt to make dif-

ferentiations in per cents. It is highly questionable whether the report card should attempt to measure character qualities, traits, and attitude. These are matters which are far better left to face-to-face conference with the parent, or embodied in a friendly note sent home. After all, a child's progress in arithmetic is susceptible of a good deal of reliable objective proof, but the fine shades of difference in "co-operation" and "social sensitiveness" are difficult to express in any mechanical scheme.

In situations where the school is staffed by exceptionally competent teachers and the homes are equipped with exceptionally intelligent parents, it is probable that the type of home report made by the child himself is the most satisfactory.[7]

6. *Publicity*

The school is an institution, and like any other institution may profit greatly by effective publicity. Obviously, this takes many forms, depending upon the local conditions which the school has to meet. One of the most common forms of school publicity is the school publication, which may vary from a simple mimeographed school newspaper to a lavishly illustrated and beautifully printed magazine.

The school newspaper is primarily a "house organ" and as such, should be as informative and as useful as possible. Its function is essentially to disseminate knowledge of the school — its organization, its policies, its philosophy of education, its various enterprises — and community news involving the school. To clutter up its pages by amateur verse, accounts of minor school incidents, and other irrelevant details is to defeat the purpose for which the newspaper exists. While the school newspaper cannot be forced into any standardized form and still meet local needs, there are some general principles of organization which merit recognition.

[7] A discussion of this matter may be found in Robert Hill Lane, *The Progressive Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938).

The newspaper should be compact in form, easily handled, and perfectly legible. If funds do not permit printing, the mimeographing should be beyond criticism. It should be well organized and not allowed to become a collection of miscellaneous and unrelated scraps of information. Each copy should contain:

(*a*) A list of the members of the faculty, their room numbers, and their grade assignments.

(*b*) The major rules and regulations under which the school operates; for example, visitors should call at the principal's office, should not stay more than thirty minutes in any one room, etc.

(*c*) An accurate calendar of forthcoming school events, together with such information regarding them as is likely to awaken the interest of the reader, and a calendar of community events affecting the school.

(*d*) Brief accounts of all recent school events for the benefit of the parents who were not able to participate in them.

(*e*) A full, accurate, and carefully written account of the preceding meeting of the Principal's Cabinet so that parents may be intelligently informed about the policy-making body of the school.

(*f*) A few well-chosen articles written by the children in the school so that they may feel a sense of participation. These, or verse, should be restricted to outstanding achievements of pupils and not allowed to degenerate into a widespread attempt to have each child in the school break into print so as to please his parents.

(*g*) Names, addresses, and telephone numbers of P. T. A. officers, together with the official P. T. A. calendar for the current year.

Another form of desirable school publicity is the bulletin devoted to a specific topic likely to be a matter of concern or interest to parents. For example, a certain elementary school [8] issues each semester a bulletin on reading readiness addressed

[8] The Palms School, Los Angeles, Mrs. Beth Benning, Principal.

to the mothers of young children near or at the beginning school age.

Practically every school district in the United States is "covered" by some sort of newspaper, from the rural weekly with "boiler plate insides" to the great metropolitan daily. The elementary-school principal needs to know (1) what newspapers serve his patrons, (2) what school news items these newspapers carry, (3) whether or not school publicity is adequate, (4) whether school news is receiving proper emphasis or the reverse, (5) whether the attitude toward the school shown by the local press is friendly, apathetic, or actively hostile, and (6) what can be done about it. Parents are interested in learning through the press (1) how children are getting along in school, (2) what methods of instruction are being used, (3) what the schools are doing in developing and maintaining an adequate health program, (4) whether public education is worth what the public pays for it, and (5) how children behave in school. These are apparently the leading topics of interest.[9] The average suburban newspaper, no matter how adequate it may be in other respects, seldom does more in reporting school news than to mention P. T. A. meetings, give notices of adult classes offered in school, and summarize the high spots of the daily round in the nearest high school. Here, then, is an almost virgin field for the wide-awake principal to develop with the aid of a few teachers and parents in his district who have "news sense," the ability to spot news likely to interest parents and to secure for it adequate newspaper publicity. It is desirable to have a small committee of teachers and parents serve as agents of the school in collecting news items, in putting them into correct form, and in securing space in the local press. Often good publicity goes to waste because the school is careless in pre-

[9] B. M. Farley, *What to Tell the People about the Public Schools* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929). *School Publicity* (Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1934) by the same author contains additional material of interest to principals.

paring material properly, in finding out in advance how much space is available in the neighborhood newspapers, and in knowing the dead line beyond which the editor will not be able to accept school news. A teacher or parent who has had some newspaper experience, or who is interested in becoming a newspaper reporter, should be selected for this important task.

Notes on Chapter Two

1. Cooke, Dennis H., *Administering the Teaching Personnel.* Chicago: Benjamin H. Sanborn and Company, 1939. A very helpful book for the school administrator.

2. Grinnel, J. Erle, *Interpreting the Public Schools.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937. A full and complete treatment of the subject. The elementary-school principal will enjoy Chapter V, "Finding and Writing School News," Chapter VI, "Story of the School," and Chapter VII, "Pupil Publications."

3. Yeager, William A., *Home — School — Community Relations.* Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, 1939. The best text now available and one covering all phases of the subject.

4. Carnegie, Dale, *How to Win Friends and Influence People.* New York: Simon and Schuster, 1936. A book which has been read by a million people should have in it something of value to the principal in his capacity as manager of people. Part Three, "Twelve Ways to Win People," is certainly worthy of his attention.

5. Heffernan, Helen, and others, *A Public Relations Program for County Schools.* This may be procured in mimeographed form from the Division of Elementary Education, State Department of Education, Sacramento, California. This report is exceedingly helpful and practical and is commended to all principals working under a county school organization.

CHAPTER THREE



The Principal as Manager of Things

THE PRINCIPAL has to manage many *things* as opposed to his management of persons, although the two have a tendency to become fused in actual practice. He maintains office records, provides school supplies and equipment, organizes his school, decides upon promotions, devises school programs, and so on through a score of duties in which the management of things are involved. The standard textbooks on elementary school practice will help him greatly on these points, and frequent visits to other schools will inform him on short cuts, tricks of the trade, and new ways of doing the old things better. His function here is twofold: first, to set up the machinery of management in such a way as to meet the needs of his school; and second, to keep that machinery running smoothly at all times. As has been observed previously, teachers respect a principal who shows himself to be a good manager and a good housekeeper. Such a little thing as requiring teachers to requisition for supplies only once a month, or even once a week, irritates teachers beyond all reason, especially if there is a valid reason for asking for supplies just after requisitions were due. Teachers are adults, not children, and should have access to the supply room at all times, the

only requirement being that, for the sake of the continuous inventory, the teacher shall leave a list of the articles taken. The points touched upon in this chapter center around certain material needs with which the principal is concerned.

I. The Maintenance of the School Plant

Maintenance of the school plant is a vital part of the managerial duties of the principal. What are his responsibilities in this connection? How may he organize his maintenance program most effectively?

1. *By daily inspection.* It is essential that once a day the principal should make an adequate inspection of the entire school plant to see if the machinery of the school is in smooth running order. Minor difficulties may be adjusted through the custodian; major difficulties will necessitate calling the business department of the central office so that immediate help may be forthcoming. It may be well for the principal to have in hand a mimeographed check sheet so that a permanent record may be kept. If a single item tends to reappear at regular intervals, boiler trouble, for example, the daily report will afford a strong argument for drastic action.

2. *By a well-planned yearly program of maintenance and improvement.* Such items as cutting doorways or arches between connecting rooms, adding an exterior exit to a primary classroom, replacement of an antiquated incinerator, or paving a section of the schoolyard are subjects for long-term planning. Once a year the principal should develop a program of major improvements and work toward them as funds become available.[1]

The principal who works in a building which has seen better days needs particularly to be on the alert to notice where the expenditure of a modest sum of money may add materially to the comfort and convenience of children and teachers. The list of possible improvements given below is by no means complete, but it will help the principal to begin a check on his school plant that is likely to be illuminating.

The following types of improvement may be kept in mind with profit:

[1] A helpful article is D. D. Cunliff's "Long-Term Maintenance of School Plants," *American School Board Journal*, May, 1937.

Laying linoleum on cement floors or old wooden floors of halls and classrooms.

Installing extra lavatories for teachers in large buildings.

Placing acoustic plaster ceilings in rooms and halls where noise is a disturbing factor.

Placing celotex or linoleum on unwanted blackboard space to provide needed bulletin boards.

Grading schoolyards rendered uneven and unsafe by rain or use or both.

Building cupboards for block storage in primary rooms.

Installing Venetian blinds in rooms and halls where light is excessive.

Installing sinks in classrooms. Sinks are necessities, not luxuries.

Installing electric outlets where needed for motion pictures and still film.

Installing wind deflectors in rooms which suffer from draughts.

Enclosing a yard incinerator by steel fence if the incinerator presents a hazard to children.

Providing additional drinking fountains where need arises.

Painting. This is a major improvement which ranges all the way from painting window sash and trim to painting an entire building, inside and out. The principal will find that frequent paint jobs will keep his school plant looking well, and that he will save on maintenance costs.

Repair of playground apparatus in the yard. Rickety apparatus looks bad and offers distinct hazards to children.

Remodeling the office of the principal in buildings which provide inadequate space. This is usually a major problem, often involving the necessity of using an adjacent classroom for the needed expansion.

Building fences around kindergarten and primary children's gardens and play areas. Little children need protection against interruption from older boys and girls.

Installing linoleum wherever food is prepared or eaten. Old buildings often use vacant classrooms for cafeterias and lunchrooms. In these cases, all floors should be linoleum-covered.

Paving the entire schoolyard where (a) erosion is a constant factor, or (b) where a light top soil floods the building with dust. Paving should be of asphaltic concrete or some other equally yielding surface.

Fencing a schoolyard exposed to heavy traffic on an adjoining arterial highway.

Building display cabinets in the main corridor adjoining the principal's office. These are usually included in new buildings, but often is missing in old ones. Community relationships are built by exhibiting children's work in this way, providing the exhibits are changed weekly.

Building movable trucks for primary school blocks, tools, and wood. A good-sized box mounted on wheels is a convenience to the children and a timesaver for the teacher.

Placing iron grilles on exterior corridors to prevent invasion of the main building during evening use of the auditorium in school plants where the auditorium is badly placed.[2]

Enclosing open lunch pavilions with glass, siding, or screens, or a combination of any two or all three materials. In warm climates lunch pavilions are common adjuncts to the school plant, but their use is often limited by cold, dust, wind, and flies.

Landscaping borders of bare and unlovely school playgrounds. A row of trees, rapid-growing vines, and a strip of lawn help to relieve the bareness.

Installing water heaters and piping hot water where needed. In old buildings there is usually no provision for hot water in the nurse's quarters, in the teachers' rest room, or in the lavatories.

Installing black shades in classrooms which are used for motion pictures and still film.

Cutting a window between the clerk's office and the principal's office to allow a mutual use of telephone. Large buildings are usually equipped with extension telephones, but old and small buildings often lack even so inexpensive a device as a communicating window.

Building sandboxes, backstops, goal posts, and other needed playground equipment.

Installing air vents where ventilation is faulty. Two locations where they are commonly needed are teachers' lavatories and cafeteria kitchens.

Installing showers in schools which deal largely with underprivileged children.

Removing hazards around the school plant, for example, the exposed ends of water pipes on the school playground, or broken wire netting.

Building radiator guards in rooms used by small children.

Remodeling an unused classroom for a general shop or a library.

[1] See page 92, item 15.

Remodeling the basement to provide the custodian with an office and storage space. In old buildings this is usually a crying need. The custodian is a responsible school officer and should be cared for adequately.

Building racks for lumber in kindergarten and primary classrooms.

Replacing insufficient electric lights. This should receive attention from every elementary-school principal. Let him arm himself with a light meter and check the lighting throughout the school plant.

Building a storage shed on the playground for storing physical-education supplies and equipment. This need is usually cared for in the main building of modern school plants, but is often neglected in older plants.

3. *By asking for regular inspection by experts.* Many school systems employ district foremen who are experts in maintenance. The principal should invite his district foreman to go over the school plant at least twice a year to ensure a check on the joint judgment of principal and custodian.

4. *By visits to other schools.* There are tricks in all trades, and the principal in a neighboring school may have discovered or invented methods of keeping the school plant up to maximum efficiency. It is always advisable to see how the other fellow is meeting problems similar to your own.

5. *By study and research.* Publications of the type of *The American School Board Journal* are helpful in keeping the principal posted on maintenance problems. New ways are continually being discovered for meeting old problems more effectively, and new devices and techniques are developed from time to time.

6. *By a program of training pupils.* One of the maintenance problems which confronts the principal is the degree to which it is advisable to enlist pupil participation. The following statement made by an elementary-school principal [3] will be helpful in this respect:

About six years ago, when the custodians were carrying a very heavy load and we were putting pressure on them to raise standards of cleanliness in the building, we noted that the outside work was slipping badly. We watched things closely on the playground for a few days and learned two things:

[3] Mrs. Georgina Ritchie, Principal, Corona Avenue School, Bell, California.

1. Children were not being trained to become trash-can conscious.
2. Teachers on duty were not particularly interested where waste paper was deposited.

The custodians were being regarded as menials whose duty it was to pick up after sloppy, lazy people, not as friends and helpers without whom the school could not function. That situation fired us to action, and a faculty meeting was called at which this matter was thrown open for discussion. It was agreed that the responsibility for keeping the grounds in good condition was something which should be shared by all pupils because all pupils enjoyed the privilege of using them.

Children expected to keep their rooms and equipment in good condition and the same thing should be true with regard to the playground. It was felt that much more satisfactory results would be obtained if service of this kind were voluntary. There would be less likelihood of objection on the part of the parents, and the children would be performing this service because they sensed the need of the school and were willing to make some sacrifices in order to meet that need, the beginning of civic responsibility and civic pride.

Two assemblies were called, one for the Lower and one for the Upper School. With the Upper School children we did not mince words. We asked three questions:

1. Who uses the playground?
2. How do you like the appearance of the playground?
3. What are you going to do about it?

There was a lengthy discussion, much enthusiasm, and many volunteers for immediate service, both boys and girls. It was decided that these volunteers, many more than were necessary for a start, would meet with the principal, make plans, and report back to the next assembly. It was very important that this assembly get off to a good start and that the interest be maintained. For this reason the term of service was limited to a month and extended only if the worker had performed unusual service and requested extension. The workers made their own rules, and there was general agreement that once a person accepted a job, he should stick to it until his term expired, except in case of sickness. In order to have the playground in good condition by 8:30, it was felt workers should be at their stations promptly by 8:00 or before that if they wished to make an early start. All pupils were expected to

keep in good condition the areas adjacent to their rooms, but there were four large play areas which needed special attention and a special committee had to be assigned to care for these.

When the organization was completed the whole matter was brought before the assemblies again in order that the pupils might have an opportunity of hearing from their own group the part they were expected to play in the new order. Additional trash cans were placed at strategical points, two dozen steel rakes with flat tines were requisitioned from the Business Department, and four wheelbarrows were made available. The problem of caring for and checking in and out materials used had to be solved, but the hardest task was training these children to rake properly and checking constantly to see that it was done just as they had been shown. The principal undertook this job and stayed by it until it was well launched, then a new chairmanship was created and a teacher took over this work. Repeatedly at P. T. A. and Open House this phase of school work was referred to parents and they heartedly approved it. The success of this whole venture depends on the attitude and enthusiasm of the teacher in charge and the co-operation she gets from her fellow workers.

The pupils enjoy the playground and it is thoroughly well used, but they have become "paper conscious." The lunch area under the trees is left in immaculate condition at noon. The problems are the newcomers from other schools who have not had training along these lines, but they become oriented very quickly.

When this work was begun, the children made no mention of receiving recognition for this type of service. It was accepted as part of their responsibility to the school. However, when Mrs. R. was chairman of both the Safety Committee and the Cleanliness of the Playgrounds, she brought out the point that the Safety Committee and the Athletic Committee received recognition for service in Assembly when their term of office expired and that a Service Certificate shall also be accorded the Clean-up Committee for their work. This recommendation was accepted and service certificates are presented to all pupils who have performed faithfully the work they have voluntarily undertaken. (The term of service has been extended to ten weeks.) Some children fell by the wayside, became careless and lost interest, but they were few in number in comparison with those children who were a

success. The slackers, who did not measure up to their obligations, were replaced from the waiting list. Many children, pampered ones, whom we never expected to volunteer, turned out to be our best workers and were on the job very early in the morning. We feel the children have developed many fine attitudes and habits as a result of this training. They see things to be done and do them. Not one parent has protested this type of work. They are proud of the condition of the grounds and have very frequently remarked about the interest displayed by the children in the care of the grounds, building, and equipment. Not enough of this type of training is done in the home.

II. The Management of Books

Since the field of schoolbooks is so large, it is possible in this chapter to mention only a few matters to which the principal should give careful consideration. In the first place, he should determine whether or not he is sensitive to books. He should ask himself, "Am I interested in books? Do I enjoy looking at them? Do bright covers, clear type, and attractive illustrations give me pleasure? When I see a new book, do I find myself anxious to look through it? Am I sufficiently informed and intelligent about books to evaluate them accurately in selecting one for a specific purpose of my own? Do I keep up with new offerings in books for children from basic texts to fiction?" or, "Am I grossly ignorant about books, perfectly indifferent toward them, and do I conceal my ignorance and indifference by pleading the heavy burden of my administrative duties?"

There is no service more appreciated by teachers than the service their principal can render them by being truly interested in their book collections and by being helpful in maintaining those collections at a high point of efficiency. Here are a few problems for the principal's consideration.

1. *What basic texts in reading are used in my school?*

It is amazing how seldom an elementary principal can answer this question readily, intelligently, and in detail (women principals usually are better than men principals in

this respect, but not too good at that!). In many school systems basic reading texts are printed by the state department as part of a state-wide system of textbook distribution. Sometimes the books are good, often they are mediocre, and generally they are poor. State adoption of textbooks is often colored by political pressure, with the result that several of our leading textbook publishers refuse to lease their plates to a state printing office. If the school is supplied with state textbooks in reading, the principal should memorize the title and original publisher of every book supplied, have a clear idea of the value of the book, and know the possible weaknesses in it which must be overcome by supplying supplementary books to compensate for these weaknesses. Was one series of basic readers adopted by the state complete from primer to sixth reader, or are the books a mixture of two or more series, owing to a desire to give as many textbook companies as possible a "cut" in the patronage of the state department of education? Mediocre books are bad enough, but at least a uniform adoption does secure continuity of vocabulary and consistency in method.

If the principal is fortunate enough to have his book supplies bought in the open market from the best publishers, and if the official book lists in his system, from which the orders are written, have been based upon accepted criteria of selection, many of the difficulties imposed upon the schools by state adoption disappear. Nevertheless, the principal needs to know his basic textbooks in reading, know why they were adopted, and if he has the choice among several approved series, know how to select the series most helpful in his local situation.

2. *What other textbooks in reading are used in my school as part of the basic reading program?*

In most school systems one or more basic series in reading are accompanied by (*a*) readers selected from basic readers in other series and used here in a supplementary capacity, and (*b*) by books which are not basic readers but which contain

content enriching and extending the experiences provided in the official basic series. It must be obvious, therefore, that the principal needs to know in some detail the various basic series in reading offered by the leading publishers of textbooks. A list of these will be found in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

3. *What types of supplementary readers are needed in my school apart from books connected with my basic reading program?*

The answers fall into two categories: first, the many easy supplementary readers which appear from time to time apart from the basic reading programs sponsored by the large textbook publishers. An excellent illustration of this type of book is *The Story Way* by Julia L. Hahn, with illustrations by Margaret Ayer.[4] The second category is far more important, and the principal needs to know the fields involved pretty thoroughly. A comparatively recent development of the extended reading program in elementary schools is the addition to our reading lists of series of readers prepared for use in specific subject-matter fields. At one time supplementary readers implied additional readers to accompany basic texts, "more of the same but easier," to quote a teacher's definition. Today there are supplementary readers in the social studies, in science, in health, in the language arts, and even in so formal a subject as arithmetic. Specific recommendations in this connection will be found in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

4. *What guidance can I give my teachers in selecting good miscellaneous supplementary books?*

The field is so large that the principal will need the advice of supervisors and librarians in locating desirable material. Many excellent book lists are now available which will prove helpful and stimulating. An effective method of meeting specific needs in supplementary reading is developed in *Let's*

[4] Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940.

Go To School by Horral and others,[5] and the resulting book lists will assist the principal who studies them in making book lists for use in his own school.

5. *What guidance can I give my teachers in selecting good recreational books?*

The most sensible answer is, "Consult your librarian," if your school boasts a library; if not, "Consult the nearest public library." If that institution is large enough to employ a children's librarian, she can give you expert guidance tempered by a real understanding of the elementary-school child. If you are in a remote situation entirely "on your own," you will have to fall back on some of the excellent lists sponsored by the American Library Association. In trying to develop a good program in literature in your school, you will find two books excellent for reference. *The Anthology of Children's Literature*,[6] by Edna Johnson and Carrie E. Scott, contains 840 pages of materials followed by several appendices which offer practical help to the teacher. *Story and Verse for Children*, edited by Miriam Blanton Huber,[7] is a delightful volume, containing specialized book lists throughout. The first section, *Books and Children*, will prove very helpful.

III. The Management of Materials in the Fine and Practical Arts

A helpful classification of types of materials needed in the fine and practical arts, prepared by the Grand Rapids Schools, is reproduced in *The Eighth Yearbook* [8] as follows:

Equipment and supplies needed in
weaving, batik, stencil, embroidery, block printing, dyeing, making costumes

[5] New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938.
[6] Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935.
[7] New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940.
[8] *Materials of Instruction*, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935), pp. 113-17.

working with clay
working with metal
bookmaking and papermaking
working with leather
working with wood
working with foods

All of the materials listed above are used at intervals, and in addition there are many items which are in everyday use — pencils, charcoal, paper, calcimine, chalks, water-color paints, oil paints, and poster paints, together with brushes, and other necessary tools.

The managerial duties of the principal in connection with his program of fine and practical arts are:

To provide ample supplies and equipment

To make supplies and equipment easily accessible to the users.

To store supplies in such manner as to prevent waste. In many schools large sheets of paper are stocked on narrow shelves, resulting in torn or folded edges. In others, papers in delicate color shades are stocked in direct sunlight so that the papers fade or become sunburned.

In providing for the practical arts in the middle and upper grades, it is assumed that one room will be equipped as a general shop with workbenches and those tools and supplies necessary in simple woodwork, metal work, and elementary electricity. Another room will be equipped to teach the homemaking arts — cookery, sewing, and household economics — on the elementary level. These necessitate expert advice, which is easily obtained, as both types of rooms have been developed effectively in American elementary schools during the past twenty years.

There is, however, another field apart from the specialized program implied in the foregoing paragraph, and that includes what may be called general equipment and supplies, or materials required in regular classroom work in the practical arts, and in the growth (physical development) program. The problem has been summed up adequately by Adams:

> Educators have talked for many years of the learning values of motor activities, especially for younger children who are just setting out to learn the ways of the world in which they are to take their places. There is now a growing appreciation of the fact that these values hold true of all learners, whatever their ages may be.
>
> We have long known and acted in the light of this understanding in our everyday living outside of school. "Don't try to tell me how that works," we say. "Let me take it into my own hands and figure it out for myself. Then I shall really learn how to do it." In spite of this understanding, there is still relatively little experimentation or actual work with materials in our schools or laboratories which are set up chiefly for older children. Many school administrators do not seem to realize that elementary classrooms must be equipped with proper facilities if these desirable activities are to be possible.[9]

The principal will do well to inquire of himself, "Do I have a rich and effective program in the fine and practical arts in my school? Do I provide the necessary equipment and supplies? Are additional supplies on hand in abundance to care for emergency needs? Do I provide a cash fund especially devoted to purchasing such items as are needed in this field, but which are not supplied on the official list of my school department?"

IV. The Management of Auditory-Visual Aids

A helpful list of auditory-visual aids has been prepared by McKown and Roberts: [10]

Blackboard and bulletin board
Charts
Dramatics — pantomime, playlet, pageant, puppet show, shadow play.
Flat pictures — photographs, prints, and post cards
Graphs
Maps
Models, objects, and specimens

[9] Olga Adams in the Foreword to Edwina Fallis's *The Child and Things* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1940).

[10] Harry McKown and Alvin B. Roberts, *Audio-Visual Aids to Instruction* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1940).

Motion pictures – silent and sound
Phonographs – records and transcriptions
Posters, cartoons, and clippings
Radio, dictaphone and loud-speaker, public-address and intercommunicating systems.
Stereoscopes and stereographs
Still pictures – flat: photographs and prints; projected: opaque and daylight; slides: glass, cellophane, film strips, and ceramic

These devices are so familiar to school principals that no argument is necessary for their retention in modern instructional program. The important problem for the elementary-school principal is to check on these items in his school and to build each up to the point of maximum efficiency. Here are a few starting points:

1. *Does the school possess a motion-picture projector?*

If so, is it a modern machine capable of ensuring excellent performance? If not, what steps may the principal take to secure a good projector? Is the Parent-Teacher Association in his school able to raise the necessary purchase price, or should the principal secure the loan of one or more projectors from a county or state visual-education division? In the latter case, what arrangements may be made to secure a steady supply of educational films? If the principal is employed in a large city school system, how can he secure maximum service from his local visual-education department?

2. *Are there several teachers in the school who have been trained to operate visual-education apparatus?*

If not, what steps can the principal take to interest his teachers in doing this?

3. *What are the relations of the school to the nearest accessible museum?*

If the museum includes a children's division, what use is made of it by children and teachers? [11]

[11] An excellent chapter on the school museum will be found in *The Integrated School Art Program* by Leon L. Winslow (New York: Mc-

4. *Are the teachers in the school intelligent in the use of films and exhibits?*

Are educational films merely looked at and then forgotten, or do the teachers work out a plan for each film so that the children really learn something from it? Are exhibits passive or active when measured by the response of the children to them?

5. *What maps are possessed by the school?*

Is the map collection large and wisely chosen to meet the needs of the teachers? Are the maps recent and in good physical condition? Are map racks provided to eliminate unnecessary wear and tear?

6. *Does each teacher have a permanent picture collection properly mounted and indexed and adequately housed?*

In this period of our educational history, when direct experience is being heavily emphasized, one feels constrained to make a plea for the vicarious experiences which auditory-visual aids afford us. McKown and Roberts offer the following observations on this point:

> Obviously, in the modern world, there are so many possible and essential experiences that no one could have them all in their original form. Not only are some of these impossible to experience directly, but some of them are too expensive. An individual could never "start from scratch" and acquire his experience as the race got it. Consequently the school is charged with the responsibility of selecting the most important, basic and desirable of these experiences, of classifying them properly, and of then so setting the stage that the pupil can have them vicariously.[12]

7. *What auditory materials does the school possess?*

In discussing auditory materials and equipment, we are leaving familiar territory and are venturing into the unknown.

Graw-Hill Book Company, 1939). This is particularly helpful because Mr. Winslow gives the practical steps necessary in setting up and operating an effective school museum.

[12] *Op. cit.*, p. 51.

Everybody agrees that the use of radio is desirable in the modern school, but nobody knows just how to introduce it into the classroom or what to do with it once it has reached there. For some reason known only to the radio networks, very little is done in providing good programs on the elementary-school level during school hours. Analysis of the daily programs offered to schools reveals the constant repetition of the note "junior high school level," "senior high school level," "adult level." The elementary school which wishes to develop radio listening as an art finds very little material with which to build a program. In the meantime, the teacher has to fall back on such locally produced programs as from time to time appear to offer something of interest to children between the five- and twelve-year levels.

A recent development which appears to have promise is the use of transcriptions of programs given on the air. This solves two perplexing problems, the problem of time and the problem of content. The school to which transcriptions are accessible may decide upon listening whether or not a given program is suitable or not. If it decides that the "canned" program has meat, it can be presented at any time, providing the necessary equipment is provided.

The modern elementary school, therefore, needs a mechanical battery consisting of an electrically-driven phonograph of good quality, an amplifier for intensifying sound, and a microphone. This combination of phonograph and public-address system offers many learning opportunities to the elementary-school child, not only radio programs *via* transcription, but musical accompaniment to folk games and folk dances, programs of music appreciation, reports and other aspects of a good language-arts program. Teachers tell us that even the tiny voice of the smallest girl in the fourth grade becomes clearly audible and delightful when stepped up by an amplifier. Incidentally, the possessor who is bashful, reticent, and retiring because of the low volume of her natural voice becomes poised and confident through the medium of the microphone.

It is very dubious practice to herd large numbers of children into the school auditorium to hear radio broadcasts. In the first place, as we have seen, few broadcasts are of interest to elementary-school children; in the second place, direct teaching is necessary if results are to be secured. These can best be attained in the regular classroom with not more than two classes (seventy children) as the maximum number to be taught, and fewer if possible. Every classroom in the building should be supplied with a small radio for such radio listening as may prove profitable.

Under the heading of auditory materials must be included a decent grand piano for the auditorium (not a hand-me-down from some neighboring high school, as is so often the case), a baby grand piano for the small assembly hall, and two or three "cottage" pianos for classroom use, which should be so mounted on "dollies" with rubber wheels that they can be easily moved from one part of the classroom to another, or from classroom to classroom as need arises.

V. *The Management of General School Supplies*

There are four cardinal rules which the principal should observe in this field:

1. *School supplies should be provided in generous quantities.* A good workman deserves good tools, and supplies are included among the tools in use by the teacher. While the budget of the school system in which the principal works sets certain limits as to the amount of supplies, he can do a great deal to help in this respect. Some principals pride themselves upon their habit of doling out supplies in meager amounts so that they may acquire a reputation for economy. To be thrifty is one thing; to be miserly, quite another. The principal who hands out a dozen pencils or a pound of scratch paper as if he were parting with his life's blood is merely making himself ridiculous.

2. *School supplies should be easily accessible.* This has been referred to earlier. If a teacher is wasteful of supplies because she is allowed to help herself, the remedy is not to

lock the door of the supply room, but to train her to develop habits of thrift.

3. *School supplies should be conveniently arranged.* Cupboards in school supply rooms are nearly always too high and shelving nearly always too narrow for the storage of large sheets of paper. This is a matter which the principal can easily correct. Often wall maps are piled in a corner on their ends, accumulating dust and becoming frayed and torn whereas a simple wooden rack will care adequately for the maps and save the teacher the inconvenience of handling a whole collection of maps to find one. The same suggestion applies to paper in rolls, the rolls being easily mounted in a wooden or metal frame.

4. *School supplies should be controlled by means of a continuous inventory.* Supplies cost money, and the principal needs to be able at all times to give account of amounts received, distributed, on hand, and needed for the future.

Every school has at least one teacher one of whose remote ancestors must have been a squirrel. What to do with the teacher who hoards school supplies year after year is a problem of management requiring both skill and tact. Having a general house-cleaning day for all teachers twice a year is one remedy. Another is to change teachers' classrooms at intervals on the general principle that three moves are as effective as a fire.

Notes on Chapter Three

The following lists contain books with which every elementary-school principal should be thoroughly familiar. For convenience, the lists are divided according to subject matter. While no attempt has been made to name all texts in any one field, the author has taken the liberty of selecting those books which, in his opinion, are the best.

I. Basic Reading Series

1. *The Child Development Readers*, by Julia Hahn (primary readers), Beryl Parker (intermediate readers), and others. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938-1940.

Readiness Reader: *Everyday Doings*

Pre-Primer: *Who Knows*

Primer: *Reading For Fun*
First Reader: *Finding Friends*
Preliminary Second Reader: *The Story Way*
Second Reader: *Making Visits*
Third Reader: *Meeting Our Neighbors*
Fourth Reader: *Exploring New Fields*
Fifth Reader: *Tales and Travel*
Sixth Reader: *Highways and Byways*

The characteristic feature of this series is that the universally accepted principle of "reading readiness" is applied to each unit of reading from pre-primer through sixth reader inclusive. For example, reading readiness is developed for the unit "Pets Are Fun" in the First Reader through twelve pages of pictures closely related to the text.

2. *The Alice and Jerry Series*, Mabel O'Donnell and others. 2nd ed.; Evanston, Illinois: Row Peterson and Company, 1941-1942.

Readiness Reader: *Here We Go*
Pre-Primers: *Happy Days*
Rides and Slides
Here and There
Primer: *Day In and Day Out*
Supplementary Primer: *The Wishing Well*
First Reader: *Round About*
Supplemental First Readers: *Anything Can Happen*
Down the River Road
I Know a Story
Second Reader: *Friendly Village*
Supplemental Second Readers: *Through the Green Gate*
It Happened One Day
Neighbors on the Hill
Third Reader: *If I Were Going*
Supplemental Third Readers: *Five and a Half Club*
After the Sun Sets
Fourth Reader: *Singing Wheels*
Fifth Reader: *Engine Whistles*
Sixth Reader: *Runaway Home*

3. *The Crabtree Reading Series*, by Eunice K. Crabtree and others. Lincoln, Nebraska: University Publishing Company, 1940-1941.

Readiness Reader: *My First Book*
Pre-Primer: *Runaway Toys*
Primer: *To School and Home Again*
First Reader: *In the City and on the Farm*
Second Reader: *Under the Roofs*
Third Reader: *Under the Sun*

4. *The Core-Vocabulary Readers*, by Miriam Blanton Huber and others. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1943.
 Primer: *The Ranch Book*
 First Reader: *Rusty Wants a Dog*
 Second Reader: *Smoky the Crow*
 Third Reader: *Planes for Bob and Andy*
5. *The Childhood Readers*, by William E. Grady, Paul Klapper, and Jane Gifford. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1938-1939.
 Pre-Primer: *Everyday*
 Primer: *Good Friends*
 First Reader: *Good Times*
 Second Reader: *Stories For Every Day*
 Third Reader: *Children Near and Far*
 Fourth Reader: *New Stories For Boys and Girls*
 Fifth Reader: *New Stories of Today and Yesterday*
 Sixth Reader: *New Stories of Life and Adventure*
6. *The Easy Growth in Reading Series*, by Gertrude Hildreth and others. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Company, 1940.
 Pre-Primer, Level One: *Mac and Muff*
 Pre-Primer, Level Two: *The Twins, Tom and Don*
 Pre-Primer, Level Three: *Going To School*
 Primer, Level One: *At Play*
 Primer, Level Two: *Fun In Story*
 First Reader, Level One: *I Know a Secret*
 First Reader, Level Two: *Good Stories*
 Second Reader, Level One: *Along the Way*
 Second Reader, Level Two: *The Story Road*
 Third Reader, Level One: *Faraway Ports*
 Third Reader, Level Two: *Enchanting Stories*
 Fourth Reader: *Today and Tomorrow*
7. *The New Basic Reading Series*, by W. S. Gray and others. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1940-1942.
 Readiness Reader: *Before We Read*
 First Pre-Primer: *We Look and See*
 Second Pre-Primer: *We Work and Play*
 Third Pre-Primer: *We Come and Go*
 Primer: *Fun with Dick and Jane*
 Supplemental Primer: *Good Times with Old Friends*
 First Reader: *Our New Friends*
 First Second Reader: *Friends and Neighbors*
 Second Second Reader: *More Friends and Neighbors*
 First Third Reader: *Streets and Roads*
 Second Third Reader: *More Streets and Roads*
 Fourth Reader: *Times and Places*

Fifth Reader: *Days and Deeds*
Sixth Reader: *People and Progress*

8. *Guidance in Reading Series*, by Grace E. Storm, William H. Johnson, and others. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan, 1936-1941.
Readiness Reader: *Sue and Mickey*
Pre-Primer: *Nip and Tuck*
Supplemental Pre-Primer: *Nip and Tuck at Play*
Primer: *Bob and Judy*
Supplemental Primers:
Bob and Judy at Play
Judy's Band
At Don's Farm
Judy's Boat Trip
First Reader: *Good Times Together*
Supplemental First Readers:
Good Times in Winter
Tubby, Tiny and Top
Good Times at the Farm
Good Times in the City
Second Reader: *Friends About Us*
Supplemental Second Readers:
The Dairy Farm
Pablo of Mexico
Third Reader: *Neighbors and Helpers*
Supplemental Third Reader: *Down By the Sea*
Fourth Reader: *Then and Now*
Fifth Reader: *Widening Trails*
Sixth Reader: *Roads of Progress*

9. *The Laidlaw Basic Readers*, by Gerald A. Yoakam, M. Madeline Veverka, and Louise Abrey. Chicago: Laidlaw Brothers, 1940-1941.
Pre-Primer: *Jack and Nancy At Home*
Primer: *On The Way To Storyland*
First Reader: *Making Storybook Friends*
Second Reader: *Stories We Like*
Third Reader: *Children Everywhere*
Fourth Reader: *On the Trail of Adventure*
Fifth Reader: *The World Around Us*
Sixth Reader: *From Every Land*

The publishers claim that this series is "the only series of basic readers recognizing the necessity for speech improvement through reading, and the improvement of reading as a vehicle of speech." Checking this phase of the *Laidlaw Basic Readers* with his teachers, the author of this book finds them enthusiastic over the materials and the methods used to secure improvement in speech.

10. *The New Work-Play Books*, by Arthur I. Gates and others. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939-1941.

Readiness Readers: *Beginning Days*
All Aboard
Pre-Primer: *Off We Go*
Supplemental Pre-Primer: *Now We Go Again*
Primer: *Jim and Judy*
Unit Readers on Primer level:
The Surprise Box
In Came Pinky
The Painted Calf
Bruce and Barbara
First Reader: *Down Our Street*
Unit Readers on First Reader level:
The Animal Parade
Tip
Mr. Joey and the Pig
Sing, Canary, Sing
Polly the Kid
Elsie Elephant
Second Reader: *We Grow Up*
Unit Readers on Second Reader level:
Animals Are Fun
Always Ready
Brownie and His Friends
Animals Work Too
Pueblo Indian Stories
We Go Away
Third Reader: *Wide Wings*
Unit Readers on Third Reader level:
Year-Round Fun
Little Bear, The Indian Boy
Tony and Jo-Jo
Fifty Winters Ago
Trails in the Woods
Kurti and Hardi
The Sad Prince
Fourth Reader: *Let's Look Around*
Fifth Reader: *Let's Travel On*
Sixth Reader: *Let's Go Ahead*

11. *The Progress in Reading Series*, by Ernest Horn and others. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1940.

Pre-Primer: *Fun With Polly Parrot*
Primer: *We Live On A Farm*

First Reader: *We Live In A City*
Second Reader: *Making New Friends*
Third Reader: *People and Places*
Fourth Reader: *More Adventures*
Fifth Reader: *Following New Trails*
Sixth Reader: *Reaching Our Goals*

The statement by the publishers that this series "concentrates more directly on training in study skills than any other series of readers now available" indicates the scope of the series.

12. *The Merton-McCall Readers*, by Elda L. Merton and William A. McCall. Chicago: Laidlaw Brothers, 1937-1939.

Primer: *Bob and Jane*
First Reader: *At Work and Play*
Second Reader: *From Day to Day*
Third Reader: *Here and Away*
Fourth Reader: *Friends in Stories*
Fifth Reader: *Winners All*
Sixth Reader: *Let's Travel*

In the primary grades, the main emphasis is placed on word recognition and paragraph and sentence reading. In the middle grades, the emphasis is placed on the development of basic reading skills to *prevent* reading difficulties.

13. *The Reading for Interest Series*, by Paul Witty and others. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1942.

Pre-Primer, Level One: *Bigger and Better*
Pre-Primer, Level Two: *Little Lost Dog*
Primer, Level One: *A Home for Sandy*
Primer, Level Two: *Rain and Shine*
First Reader: *Something Different*
Second Reader: *Lost and Found*
Third Reader: *Run and Frolic*
Fourth Reader: *Luck and Pluck*
Fifth Reader: *Merry Hearts and Bold*
Sixth Reader: *The Brave and Free*

14. *The Quinlan Readers*, by Myrtle Banks Quinlan. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1939-1942.

Readiness Reader: *Reading Pictures*
Pre-Primer: *Winky*
Primer: *Day By Day*
First Reader: *To and Fro*
Second Reader: *Faces and Places*
Third Reader: *Busy World*

A distinctive feature of these readers is the highly legible sight-saving type used throughout the series.

15. *The Unit-Activity Reading Series*, by Nila Banton Smith, Stephen F. Bayne, and others. New York: Silver Burdett and Company, 1935-1940.

Readiness Reader: *Ready To Go*
Pre-Primer: *Come and Play*
Supplemental Pre-Primer: *Tom's Trip*
Primer: *At Home and Away*
(Nineteen supplementary pamphlets, *Making A Playhouse, Carl's Home*, etc., are available in connection with the Primer.)
First Reader: *In City and Country*
(Twenty-two supplementary pamphlets, *All Kinds Of Cars, The Filling Station*, etc., are available in connection with the First Reader.)
Second Reader: *Round About You*
(Eleven supplementary pamphlets, *A Big Airport, Gliders and Airplanes*, etc., are available in connection with the Second Reader.)
Third Reader: *Near and Far*
(Four supplementary pamphlets, *Red Eagle of the Plains, Red Eagle and His People, A Look At the Weather*, and *Gerrit and His Friends*, are available in connection with the Third Reader.)
Fourth Reader: *Distant Doorways*
Fifth Reader: *Frontiers Old and New*
Sixth Reader: *On The Long Road*

16. *The Webster Readers*, by Clarence R. Stone. St. Louis: Webster Publishing Company, 1935-1940.

The primary readers are grouped together under the title *The Joyful Readers*:

Pre-Primer: *Fun For Tom and Jip*
Primer: *Joyful Stories*
First Reader: *What Fun!*
Second Reader: *Joyful Times*
Third Reader: *Joyful Trails*

The next three books are grouped under the title *The Webster Intermediate Readers*:

Fourth Reader: *Joyful Adventures*
Fifth Reader: *Treasure Chests*
Sixth Reader: *Joyland in Reading*

These books are a combination of work-type and content readers.

II. Social Studies Series

1. *Community Life Series*, edited by L. Thomas Hopkins. Bos-

ton: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934-1939. A series of readers in the social studies for the primary grades:

Jimmy the Groceryman (Jane Miller)
To Market We Go (Jane Miller)
Dean and Don at the Dairy (Jane Miller)
Here Comes the Postman (Dorothea Park)
Pets Are Fun (Dorothea Park)

2. *The Social Studies Series.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938-1941. A series of readers for the middle grades:

The Ship Book (Jean H. Dukelow and Hanson Hart Webster)
Travel by Air, Land and Sea (Hanson Hart Webster)
The World's Messengers (Hanson Hart Webster)
What the World Eats (Hanson Hart Webster and Ada R. Polkinghorse)

3. *The Hanna Social Studies Series*, by Paul Hanna, W. S. Gray, and others. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1937-1943.

Primer level: *Peter's Family*, Revised
First-Reader level: *Hello, David*
Second-Reader level: *Susan's Neighbors at Work*
Third-Reader level: *Centerville*
Fourth-Reader level: *Without Machinery*
Fifth-Reader level: *Our World and How We Use It*
(The above supplements *This Useful World*)
Sixth-Reader level: *Ten Communities*
Making the Goods We Need
Marketing the Things We Use

4. *Man and His Changing Society*, a social studies series for the middle grades by Harold Rugg and Louise Krueger. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936-1938.

Grade Three: *The First Book of the Earth*
Nature Peoples
Grade Four: *Communities of Men*
Peoples and Countries
Grade Five: *The Building of America*
Man At Work: His Industries
Grade Six: *Man At Work: His Arts and Crafts*
Mankind Throughout the Ages

5. *The Democracy Readers*, by W. W. Charters and others. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940.

Primer: *School Friends*
First Reader: *Let's Take Turns*
Second Reader: *Enjoying Our Land*
Third Reader: *Your Land and Mine*
Fourth Reader: *Toward Freedom*

Fifth Reader: *Pioneering in Democracy*
Sixth Reader: *The Way of Democracy*

A new series of books for the education of children in the American way of living. They are designed to make possible the teaching of democracy in American schools, and they put into practical and teachable form the long view of educational statesmanship that it is the duty of American education to emphasize for children the characteristics of democracy which belong to our heritage, to teach them to love and respect the democratic rights which our forebears have won, and to develop in them an active determination to protect and continue to perfect our ways of expressing these democratic ideals.

6. *The Henry Books*, by James S. Tippett. Yonkers, New York: World Book Company, 1936-1943.

Pre-Primer level: *Henry and the Garden*
Primer level: *Stories About Henry*
First-Reader level: *Henry and His Friends*
Second-Reader level: *Here and There With Henry*

Henry is a small boy who lives in the country with his father and mother and Ann and John. These books tell about Henry and some of his good times.

7. *Unitexts.* Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company.

MAJOR AREA I: Co-operating in Social and Civic Action
Ashkee of Sunshine Water (Navaho Indians)
Buffalo Caller (Plains Indians)
Down the Santa Fe Trail
Fire Fighters (Fire Protection, Past and Present)
New Amsterdam Colonial Days
New England Colonial Days
On the Oregon Trail
Prairie Children (Pioneer Home Life)
Southern Colonial Days
The Story of Democracy

MAJOR AREA II: Earning a Living
Daily Bread and Other Foods
From Barter to Money
The Story of Trade

MAJOR AREA III: Adjusting to and Improving Physical Environment
Buried Sunlight (Story of Coal)
Man's Use of Plants and Animals
On the Airways (Aviation Today)
Wonderful Wings (Story of Aviation)

MAJOR AREA IV: Personal Development and Guidance
The Fight Against Germs

These are short paper-covered pamphlets, with easy vocabularies, intended for rapid reading.

8. The principal desirous of increasing his knowledge of the historical background of our country will be interested in the *Rivers of America Series* published by Farrar and Rinehart, New York City. Available volumes are:

Arthur Bernon Tourtellot, *The Charles*
Robert P. Tristram Coffin, *The Kennebec*
Walter Havighurst, *The Upper Mississippi*
Cecile Hulse Matschat, *The Suwannee River*
Struthers Burt, *The Powder River*
Blair Niles, *The James*
Carl Carmer, *The Hudson*
Julian Dana, *The Sacramento*
William E. Wilson, *The Wabash*
Clyde Brion Davis, *The Arkansas*
Harry Emerson Wildes, *The Delaware*
James Gray, *The Illinois*
Floyd Benjamin Streeter, *The Kaw*
Henry Seidel Canby, *The Brandywine*

III. Science Series

1. *New Pathways in Science*, by Gerald Craig and others. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1940-1941. A series in elementary science for the six grades of the elementary school.

We Want To Know — *The Earth and Life Upon It*
We Find Out — *From Sun to Earth*
Changes All Around Us — *The Earth Then and Now*
Our Earth and Sky

2. *The Scientific Living Series*, by George Frasier and others. New York: L. W. Singer Company, 1939-1940.

We See — *The Seasons Pass*
Sunshine and Rain — *The How and Why Club*
Through the Year — *How and Why Club Experiments*
Winter Comes and Goes — *How and Why Club Discoveries*

3. *Basic Studies in Science*, by Wilbur L. Beauchamp, William S. Gray, and others. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1943.

Book I *Look and Learn* Book II *Round About Us*

Other books in this series will appear later.

4. *Adventures in Science*, by Harry A. Carpenter, G. A. Bailey, and M. L. Baker. The Rainbow Series. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1939-1941.

First Reader: *Adventures in Science with Judy and Joe*
Second Reader: *Adventures in Science with Bob and Don*

Third Reader: *Adventures in Science with Jane and Paul*
Fourth Reader: *Adventures in Science with Dorie and Billy*

5. *The World of Science Series*, by Lillian Hethershaw and Tunis Baker. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1942-.

Fourth-grade level: *Wonders to See*
Fifth-grade level: *Science Trails*
Sixth-grade level: *Making Discoveries*

The above is one of the newest and one of the best series of books on elementary science.

6. *The Wonderworld in Science Series*, by Warren W. Knox and others. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. In this handsomely printed and beautifully illustrated series, there is a book for each of the six grades in the elementary school. Probably the most popular elementary-science readers in American schools today.

7. *Unitexts*, by Bertha M. Parker and Glenn O. Blough. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1940-1944.

PRIMARY GRADES

Physical Science
Doing Work
Water Appears and Disappears
Biological Science
Animals Round the Year
An Aquarium
The Insect Parade
Plants Round the Year

MIDDLE GRADES

Physical Science
The Air About Us
Clouds, Rain, and Snow
The Earth a Great Storehouse
Fire
Gravity
Magnets
The Sky Above Us
Stories Read from the Rocks
Thermometers, Heat and Cold
Biological Science
Animals of the Seashore
Animals of Yesterday
Animal Travels
Birds
Fishes

Flowers, Fruits, Seeds
The Garden and Its Friends
Insects and Their Ways
Living Things
Reptiles
Seeds and Seed Travels
Spiders
Toads and Frogs
Trees
You as a Machine

IV. Language Arts Series

The Functional Approach

1. *The Language For Meaning Series*, by Paul McKee and others. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941. This series uses the functional approach. McKee says that there are a certain number of "jobs" to be done in the language arts and that the function of the textbook is to indicate the job and provide materials for instruction, practice, and drill.

Third Grade: *Making Words Work*
Fourth Grade: *Gaining Skill with Words*
Fifth Grade: *Sharing Experiences*
Sixth Grade: *Communicating Ideas*

2. *Building Better English Series*, by Harry A. Greene and others. Evanston: Row, Peterson and Company, 1941.

Third Grade: *Step by Step*
Fourth Grade: *Day by Day*
Fifth Grade: *In School and Out*
Sixth Grade: *For Every Need*

3. *We Talk and Write*, by L. J. O'Rourke and others. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1942. A series of language books using the functional approach, grades three to six inclusive.

At the end of each book in the series is a section "Helping Yourself," which presents review materials, practice, and answers.

4. *Step by Step in English Series*, by Frederick H. Bair and others. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941.

Third Grade: *Fun with Words*
Fourth Grade: *With Tongue and Pen*
Fifth Grade: *Words and Their Uses*
Sixth Grade: *Better English Usage*

5. *Adventures in English Series*, by David S. Burleson and Laurie Cash. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1941. A book for each of the four grades, third to sixth inclusive. Each book contains four

"natural units," in the words of the authors — Practice in Social Usage; Cultural Experiences; Development of Technical Skills; Measurement of Progress. Considerable space is given in the sixth-grade book to formal grammar.

The Unit of Work Approach — Extensive

6. *The English Experience Series*, by Mark A. Neville and others. Chicago: Rand McNally Company, 1938. This series reflects the theory that all desirable language outcomes may be derived through units of work. The function of the textbook is to provide typical units of work and show how they can be utilized to contribute to the language-arts program.

Third Grade: *Fun with English*
Fourth Grade: *Adventures in English*
Fifth Grade: *English in Practice*
Sixth Grade: *English at Work*

7. *Our Language Series*, by R. I. Johnson and others. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1942.

Second Grade: *Betty-Bobby-Billy*
Third Grade: *Good English Habits*
Fourth Grade: *English to You and Me*
Fifth Grade: *English in Work and Play*
Sixth Grade: *Putting English to Work*

The Unit of Work Approach — Intensive

8. *The English Activities Series*, by W. Wilbur Hatfield and others. New York: American Book Company, 1940. This series indicates a type of approach by units of work in which each unit stresses *one* major outcome, i.e., "Good Times With Pets" (using good sentences). This series includes four books, grades three to six inclusive.

The Combined Approach

In this type of language book, units of work are presented in the text as sources of materials in the language arts, followed by a section devoted to specific skills, practice, and drill.

9. *The English in Action Series*, by R. W. Bardwell and others. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1940. The first section in each book is made up of units of work; the second section is called "Your Handbook."

Third Grade: *Making Plans*
Fourth Grade: *Sharing Interests*
Fifth Grade: *Exchanging Thoughts*
Sixth Grade: *Expressing Ideas*

10. *How To Speak And Write*, by Paul McKee and others. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. This is a handy reference book in language for children in the upper elementary grades.

11. *Handbook of English For Boys and Girls*, by Delia E. Kibbe and others. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1939. Similar to the above, but briefer and on a slightly lower vocabulary level.

V. A Growth and Development Series

New Health and Growth Series, by W. W. Charters, Dean F. Smiley, and Ruth Strang. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. This series is one of the few which sees the problem as the total growth of children rather than as the old-fashioned concept of "health" as being spinach-conscious and having your adenoids taken out.

First Grade: *All Through the Day*
Second Grade: *Through the Year*
Third Grade: *Health Secrets*
Fourth Grade: *Healthful Ways*
Fifth Grade: *Let's Be Healthy*
Sixth Grade: *Habits, Healthful, and Safe*

Miscellaneous Notes

1. An invaluable reference book for the elementary principal is *Children's Catalog*. Sixth edition; New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1941. The sub-title indicates the scope: *A Dictionary Catalog of 4200 Books with Analytical Entries for 910 Books and a Classified List Indicating Subject Headings*. A particularly helpful feature is the indication after each title of the grades in which it is likely to be most successful.

2. *Materials of Instruction, Eighth Yearbook*. Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. National Education Association. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. This is a "must" book for the principal confronted by the management of things.

3. Newkirk, Louis V., *Integrated Handiwork for Elementary Schools*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1940. A standard reference book in the field of the practical arts.

4. McKown, Harry, and Alvin B. Roberts, *Audio-Visual Aids to Instruction*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1940. For a long time to come, this will continue to be the standard reference book in the field of audio-visual instruction. Especially helpful to the principal are: Chapter IV, "Objects, Specimens and Models";

Chapter V, "Graphic Materials"; Chapter VI, "Flat or Unprojected Pictures"; Chapter VII, "Projected Still Pictures"; Chapter VIII, "The Motion Picture"; Chapter IX, "School Trips and Tours"; Chapters XI and XII, "Using Audio-Visual Aids."

5. Nida, Richard H., and Fay Adams, *Man the Nature Tamer, from Cave Man to American Citizen.* New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1941. The authors describe this as "a story of the race's experience in its natural setting and human completeness and in relation to many fields of knowledge." The unit captions indicate the methods of approach: Man Before History; The Story of Human Foods; Man Wins His Clothing From Nature; From Wigwam to Skyscraper; Metals Add to Man's Power; Fire and Fuels Help Man Onward; The Power Giant; From Wagons to Wings; From Picture Writing to Radio; Men, Machines, and Power. This is suitable for the fifth or sixth grade.

6. The Webster Publishing Company of St. Louis is issuing a series of readers for the middle grades organized on a "regional" basis — The South, the Middle West, etc. The first three books on the South are now available:

Fourth Grade: *Mustang Gray* (1941)
Fifth Grade: *Pine Knots* (1942)
Sixth Grade: *Cypress Knees* (1942)

These books have been prepared by Clarence R. Stone and his associates.

7. Hoban, Charles F., and others, *Visualizing the Curriculum.* New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1937. This imposing volume covers the field of visual aids to instruction most adequately. Illustrations and bibliography are exceptionally good.

8. Tyler, I. Keith, "Radio's Function in Education," *Educational Method,* January, 1939. Tyler advises the teacher to investigate local radio offerings and assign a program for after-school listening by her pupils to be followed by class discussion on the next day. If the teacher is thoroughly familiar with the program, has a clear idea of its educational possibilities, knows how to draw reactions to the program from her boys and girls, and can develop the attitudes she considers desirable in children, this suggestion has much to commend it.

9. Rochester (New York) maintains a very efficient Department of Visual and Radio Education which issues weekly an attractive bulletin, *Tuning in on the Rochester School of the Air.* Each page in this bulletin is divided by a vertical line into two columns: the right side listing the programs selected for the week, the left side giving specific teaching helps in preparation for the programs.

Listening guides are provided for certain programs, each guide being divided into suggestions for preparing the children to listen, analysis of the program, and follow-up activities.

Detroit (Michigan) has a similar department which issues the *School Spotlight*, described as a "series of dramatized radio programs planned for students of upper elementary grades, especially planned as an aid in the synthesis of learning, the script material cutting across subject-matter fields."

CHAPTER FOUR



The Principal as Architect and Builder

> Thousands of school buildings are today scarcely fit homes for children, while other thousands of children are housed in buildings condemned as unfit for this purpose because of unsafe floors, walls, or foundations, because they are in reality fire-traps, or because of unhygienic conditions. Here is a pressing home-school-community problem, for the home in which the child lives for so much of his school time should be as safe and as hygienic as the most desirable home one would wish for his own child.[1]

IN GROWING LOCALITIES, the elementary-school principal is frequently called upon to co-operate with a professional architect and the members of the School Board in planning a new school building, an additional unit (separate), or an addition (joined to the existing building). The modern up-to-date principal has both an opportunity and an obligation in guiding the building program. At this point, he is likely to run into four major problems: *First*, that the architect selected will know nothing about school architecture and be unwilling to learn, or has been building schools for years according to a pet plan and is unwilling to listen to new ideas.

[1] William A. Yeager, *Home-School-Community Relations* (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, 1939), p. 52.

The *second* problem revolves around Board members who want the building to be showy rather than useful, and who go in heavily for imposing period architecture. The *third* problem is concerned with local realtors who wish to unload a site upon the School Board in order to float a new subdivision. The *fourth* problem arises out of the relationship of the principal with a contractor whose ethics regarding building materials are very elastic, and whose powers of co-operation are questionable. The principal will need to be vigilant, tactful, patient, and courageous from the inception of the project up to the time when the building is actually occupied.

I. Basic Considerations in Planning School Buildings

While every building enterprise has to be considered on its own merits, there are six basic considerations which the elementary-school principal will do well to keep in mind in making plans for a new building:

1. The site must be ample. A minimum of five acres will allow space enough to develop a modern program.

2. The site must be centrally located with respect to the section of the community to be served. Great inconvenience is caused to children and parents by locating a school at the edge of a district rather than toward its center.

3. The site must be level. Hillside sites allow of massing school buildings to catch the eye of the out-of-town visitor, but are notoriously expensive in the need for embankments, terraces, and stairways. Play spaces have to be confined either to terraces, with consequent risk to life and limb, or to long sloping playgrounds which render a good play program impossible.[2]

4. In locating the school building on the site, classroom units should be located as far from the main line of traffic as possible. The auditorium may be nearer the main line of traffic in order to provide easy access for the public, but preferably on a side street rather than on the main artery. All

[2] For example, the school site pictured in Plate 62.

space along the main line of traffic should be reserved for playground or garden, or both.

5. The school building should be orientated so as to ensure proper lighting of the classrooms. General rules are of little assistance in this respect, and there are exceptions to this rule, as will be seen later. Every site presents unique problems, and the architect will have to meet his lighting problems on the ground.

6. The building should be insulated from noise by acoustic ceilings and noise-resistant floor coverings.

In a remarkable article in *Architectural Record*, February, 1939, "Elementary Public School Design," N. L. Engelhardt compresses a wealth of information on trends in school architecture which is of great value to any person concerned with this problem. To assist the reader of this chapter, these points developed by Engelhardt should also be mentioned:

(*a*) The building must be flexible, to allow interior changes as educational theory and practice develop into new forms.

(*b*) The building should be inexpensive, to allow of rapid demolition of obsolete buildings without excessive expenditures.

(*c*) The building must care for the educational needs of human beings from nursery school through adult life.

(*d*) The experience program as developed by John Dewey requires provision for activities of many different kinds.

(*e*) A modern philosophy of education requires the provision of separate housing for children in the elementary school on three levels – two to five years of age; six to eight years of age; and nine to thirteen years of age. This is in direct contrast to the traditional method of herding all ages in the elementary school into one building unit.

II. The Building Mass

The principal needs to know the term *functional architecture* and have a clear idea as to its meaning. To put it in the simplest possible words, functional architecture means planning a building in terms of use rather than in terms of appearance.

One can almost count on one hand the number of elementary-school buildings in this country planned primarily in terms of their use for the comfort and delight of children. So long as we are committed to the practice of making the new school building a show place on equal terms with the new City Hall or the Soldiers' Memorial, we shall be violating the basic principles of functional architecture.

> What is modern architecture? It is essentially a philosophy. First of all, it says "Yes" to Life. It is proud of our civilization. It is proud of our inventions – electric light, wireless, radio, automobiles, aeroplanes – which all have increased man's comfort and will eventually increase man's happiness. It recognizes that modern functions cannot be fitted into old forms, nor can 20th Century "uses" be combined with 12th Century "beauties." It never did work. It never will work. We all want beauty, but of our own time, created for our own needs. What kind of beauty is there in imitation Greek banks, imitation Roman courthouses, imitation Gothic colleges, or clever mixtures of all these for our school buildings? Beauty is not captured by importing or adapting a "style." Beauty and use, form and function, have never been separated in any work of architecture, old or new, which turned out to be good.[3]

By "building mass" we mean the impression made upon us by the total mass of the building as seen from various angles. If we are to have period architecture to impress the out-of-town visitor, we shall plan the building in terms of Tudor, Gothic, Mission, Georgian, or Mediterranean architecture (among other styles) at the discretion (or lack of it) of members of the school board. Obviously, we are setting up the outside in advance and are making the inside to conform to it. The functional architect reverses the process – he finds out in advance what the several functions, or uses, are to which the school plant will be put, builds outward, and lets the appearance of the building mass follow upon function.

Certainly, the building mass should fit the physical setting so that it will seem to have grown up out of the soil. It must

[3] William Lescaze, "Modern Buildings for Modern Education," *Progressive Education*, April, 1938, pp. 332 ff.

be in keeping with the other buildings in the neighborhood and seem to belong to them. Gothic towers and Tudor windows in a suburban area made up of one-story cottages are not in keeping with the rules of functional architecture. In a rural area, the building must fit its physical setting so that it merges comfortably into the background.

The one-story type of building is best suited for an elementary school consisting of kindergarten and the first six grades, since it eliminates danger to small children on stairways. If the building is to serve additional grades, if more space is needed, or if the school site is small, the two-story type of building may be found necessary.

III. Functional Units in a Modern School Plant

If the school plant is to be functional, it must serve the uses to which it is to be put. In order to discuss this topic helpfully, let us set a specific problem — the provision of functional units to meet the needs of 600 elementary-school children. What are the *functional* elements of such a school plant?

1. *A series of classrooms.* Since our building is to house 600 children, presumably from five-year-olds to twelve-year-olds, we shall need approximately ten classrooms for the Lower School and an equal number for the Upper School.

2. *An administrative unit.* A reception room with working space for the school clerk or secretary; the principal's office, including clothes closet and lavatory; a supply- and book-storage room for current supplies; and a nurse's room, if funds do not permit a separate health unit. (See Plate 1.)

3. *A teachers' unit.* A clubroom with a housekeeping alcove; a teachers' rest room with lavatory; and a workroom equipped with large tables, paste, scissors, paper cutter, etc. The usual arrangement of combining all three functions in one room is highly unsatisfactory.

4. *A health unit.* A physician's room, a nurse's room, a dentist's room, and a large rest room for children, equipped with cots and blankets for at least forty children. The modern

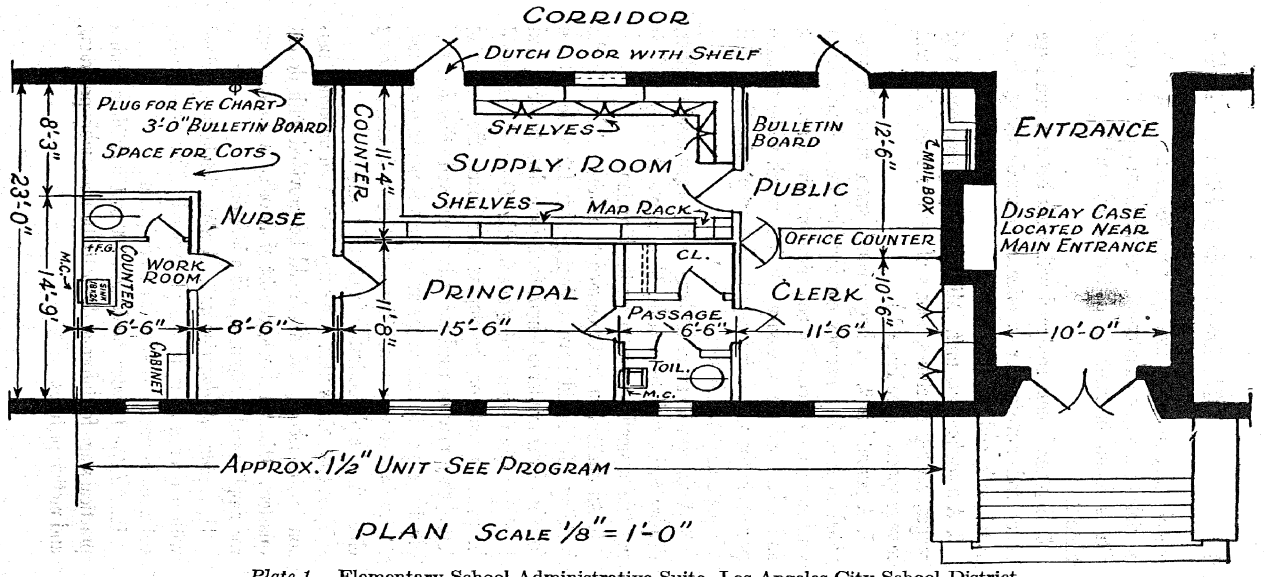


Plate 1. Elementary School Administrative Suite, Los Angeles City School District

school program emphasizes the need for rest, and it is impossible to carry on an adequate rest program under the conditions found in most elementary-school buildings. (See Plate 2.)

5. *A general shop,* equipped with work benches and large tables, and provision for experiences in woodworking, sheet-metal work, and other crafts.

6. *A household-arts unit.* Minimum equipment consists of ranges, sewing machines, looms of various sizes, sink, and storage space. (See Plate 3.)

7. *A parents' unit.* A large enough space should be provided to seat fifty persons comfortably; there should be a smaller adjoining room for committee meetings; and a buffet and a lavatory are necessary. If it is worth while to have parents in the school, it is worth while to provide them with adequate accommodations.

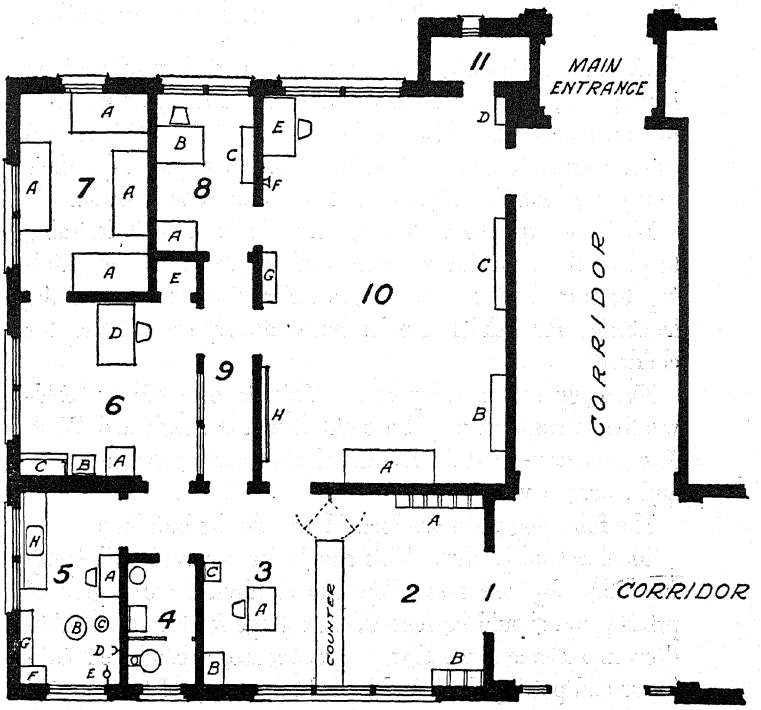
8. *A library* with space for large tables, a few smaller tables, display racks, bulletin boards, files, ample shelving, and, if possible, a small workroom for the librarian.

9. *An auditorium* to accommodate all the children in the building. It should have a sloping floor for at least three fourths of the available length from front door to stage, and level space for the remaining one fourth. Opera chairs should be used for seats on the sloping floor space; the remaining level space may be used for folk games and other forms of physical education when the auditorium is not in formal use. At assemblies where additional seating is needed, folding chairs may be placed just in front of the stage.

10. *A custodian's unit.* The custodian is an important person in the school, and he should be provided with decent quarters. His unit should consist of an office, a storage room for supplies and equipment, and a lavatory.

11. *A physical-education unit.* A room should be provided with a door leading to the playground. This houses bats, balls, tennis nets, and other yard equipment.

12. *A Little Theater* should seat 100 to 150 children, with a practical stage for informal dramatization, assembly programs, and motion pictures.



(*T. C. Kistner, Architect*)

Plate 2. Floor Plan of Mountain View School Clinic, Elmonte, California

1. Main Entrance to Clinic
2. Waiting Room
 - *A.* Chairs
 - *B.* Chairs
3. Secretary's Office
 - *A.* Desk
 - *B.* Files
 - *C.* Scales
4. Toilet Room
5. Dental Clinic
 - *A.* Desk
 - *B.* Ritter Chair
 - *C.* Pedestal Cuspidor
 - *D.* Pelton Light
 - *E.* Wall Arm-Bracket, Wall Engine and Rheostat
 - *F.* Sterilizing Table
 - *G.* American Cabinet
 - *H.* Tile Drainboard, Sink, and Storage
6. General Nursing and Medical Clinic
 - *A.* Footbath
 - *B.* Sink
 - *C.* Dressing and Supply Cabinet; Storage
 - *D.* Desk and Telephone
 - *E.* Storage Closet
7. Rest Clinic
 - *A.* Double Deck Bunks
8. Guidance Clinic
 - *A.* Files
 - *B.* Desk
 - *C.* Cabinet
9. Passage
10. Corrective Clinic
 - *A.* Plinth Table
 - *B.* Mats and Rack
 - *C.* Corrective Mirrors
 - *D.* Cabinet
 - *E.* Desk
 - *F.* Microphone Outlet
 - *G.* Bookcase
 - *H.* Stall Bars
11. Shower Room

All clinic rooms are equipped with thermostatically controlled heat, indirect lighting, two-toned Venetian blinds, electric clock, and radio speaker.

13. *A cafeteria* of three organic parts: a kitchen where food is prepared, a lunchroom for children, and a separate lunchroom for teachers. This unit should be furnished with several exterior exits to the yard so that children may take their lunch trays outside in good weather if they wish to do so.

14. *Lavatory units for boys, girls, and adults.* It is desirable to place children's lavatories toward the center of the building to provide for easy access. For obvious reasons, the lavatories for adults should be removed from those for children.

15. *A gymnasium-playroom.* This is essential in cold-weather areas, but may be omitted in the South and West. The gymnasium should include shower rooms, locker rooms, and emergency lavatories.

The following units are located outside the building:

16. *A school garden.* This should be removed sufficiently from the play areas to allow the children some degree of privacy and should be fenced. A cottage for the use of children in inclement weather, a greenhouse, a combined lathhouse and potting shed, and a shed for storage of tools should be provided.

17. *Play areas.*[4] The location and equipment of play areas requires expert advice. These areas should provide for all the games and other physical activities required by the physical-education program. It is highly desirable that the entire schoolyard should be paved with asphaltic concrete ("block top") or its equivalent.

18. *Landscaping.* Most elementary schoolyards in America are dreary, unlovely places. Trees, shrubs, lawns, and flowers should be planted in a carefully designed landscaping scheme. Benches should be placed with reference to the landscaping so that the children may relax in as pleasant a setting as possible. Care should be taken not to devote too large a space in front of the building to landscaping with the consequent loss of space for play areas. Too many American schools have

[4] See Donald D. Cunliff, "Points on Playgrounds," *The Nation's Schools*, April, 1941.

magnificent lawns in front of the building and cramped play areas in the rear. There might be some excuse for this if children were allowed to play on the front lawn, but perish the thought!

19. *Lunch pavilions.* In climates which make such an addition to the school plant possible, places should be provided outdoors where the children may eat their lunches in pleasant weather. A pavilion which is roofed and open at the sides is desirable. Benches and tables are necessary equipment.

20. *Heating and ventilating unit.* Where space permits, it is desirable to have the heating plant located at a distance from the main building in order to lessen the possible dangers of fire, explosions, smoke, and dust.

IV. The Modern Classroom

From the standpoint of functional architecture, it is highly essential that classrooms should be designed with one primary end in view, the comfort, convenience, and delight of the children and their teachers. In the modern school, which calls for the provision of many desirable experiences for children, it is imperative that the children should have sufficient room in which to carry on their work. The organic parts of a modern elementary classroom are as follows:

1. *The classroom proper.* Minimum width, 23 feet; minimum length, 38 feet. A blackboard should be placed on the front wall, bulletin or display boards on side and rear walls. The modern elementary program does not require much blackboard space. Very little built-in equipment such as bookcases or shelving should be provided. From the standpoint of functional architecture, it is preferable to leave the floor space as clear as possible, and provide such movable equipment as may be found necessary.

2. *The work alcove.* Obviously, this will be the width of the classroom and not less than six feet in depth. It should be provided with a sink, shelving, and a cupboard.

3. *The cloakroom.* This also will be the width of the class-

room and not less than four feet in depth. It should include rods and coat hangers for the children, shelving, and a coat closet for the teachers' use. An alternative is to provide steel lockers for storage in the adjoining hall. These should be recessed in the wall. Both work alcove and cloakroom should be thought of as *spaces* rather than as separate rooms.

4. *The exterior wall.* This is a most vital spot in designing a functional school building. The conventional idea of an exterior schoolroom wall is that it shuts the children in from the outside world. The functional idea is to make it merely a "veil" or a "curtain" or a "skin" (to use the functionalist terms) to allow instant access to the outside. In all but very cold climates, there will be many days when it will be delightful to extend the classroom outward into fresh air and bright sunlight. This is being done in a variety of ways: by steel-and-glass frames which raise upward toward the ceiling, by French doors, or by sliding glass doors. Each method has its merits and defects.

5. *The terrace.* Immediately outside the exterior wall should extend a terrace nearly as long as the classroom and at least twelve feet wide. This terrace serves as an outdoor workroom in good weather, and leads by one or two steps to a grass plot where children can play or work as desired. Since each classroom has its terrace, the three- or four-foot space between terraces should be planted to quick-growing shrubs to ensure a degree of privacy. A variation of the terrace idea is to recess the outside wall six or eight feet to allow for a partial roof over the terrace. In very warm climates where bright sunlight is common, it is wise to cover the terrace with awnings, securely fixed to steel rods, or to employ canvas curtains which can be easily rolled up. A third method, the least satisfactory but the cheapest, is to use large beach umbrellas fixed in sockets bored in the terrace floor.[5]

[5] Adapted from Robert Hill Lane, *The Teacher in the Modern Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941), pp. 66-67.

V. The Importance of Reducing Noise

> Acoustical treatment is one of the greatest agencies for mental hygiene that can be introduced into the schoolhouse.
>
> Noise frequently interferes with accurate hearing. In reverberant classrooms an astonishing amount of class procedure is not heard correctly.
>
> Teachers are in a peculiar dilemma with regard to noise. They realize the harmful effect; yet, if they are to conduct a class which is spontaneous and vigorous, they are confronted with unwanted confusion. If the teacher can have a classroom in which quieting material is installed, he will have a room in which hearing is easy and accurate. An industrious, lively, enthusiastic class no longer produces an uproar. The classroom becomes a place where lifelong habits of concentration and industry may be formed.[6]

In general, much of the noise heard in the elementary classroom is unnecessary and can be reduced through proper insulation within the walls; by the use of linoleum, asphalt tile, wood blocks, or other noise-eliminating material on the floors; and by acoustically treated ceilings. Attempts to lower the noise level by these means have met with marked success, as shown by the testimony of teachers who are so fortunate as to preside over modern classrooms.

Among the advantages of using tile are that patterns can always be varied to suit the taste of the builder and that some kinds of tile can be painted without reducing their absorption of noise. Plate 4 shows tile being set in place. If less expensive methods of noise reduction are necessary, certain types of plaster and building board which are noise-absorbent may be used.

VI. Floor Coverings in the Modern School

In general, modern classroom floor coverings fall into six categories: maple wood blocks, asphalt tile, linoleum, terrazzo, cork tile, and cork carpet. In many cases, the type of building

[6] From *Less Noise* (Celotex Corporation, Chicago).

construction adopted automatically decides the floor covering. Where a choice is possible, the puzzled architect finds that each type of floor covering has its enthusiastic advocates and its equally opinionated opponents.

Maple wood-block floors consist of unit maple blocks fastened securely together laid on an asphalt-base mastic. The advantages claimed are durability and quiet, owing to the mastic base which prevents vibration and reverberation. An excellent article by Harvey Creech in *American School Board Journal* for January, 1938, presents the case for the maple wood block most adequately.

Linoleum is probably the most popular floor covering for elementary-school classrooms. A good pattern adds greatly to the beauty of a room, as illustrated in the kindergarten in Plate 5.

Certain types of construction make asphalt tile a necessary floor covering, and in many other situations it is chosen over other types of floor covering owing to its springy surface and its wide variety of color and pattern. Plate 6 shows asphalt tile in a classroom of Laguna Beach Elementary School, Laguna, California.

Cork tile is composed of shavings of cork, pressed hard and firm into sheets and cut into tile form.

Cork carpet comes in roll form, like linoleum, and is granular in texture.

Terrazzo is a type of Venetian marble mosaic using a Portland-cement matrix. The manufacturers of terrazzo claim five advantages for it: (1) that it is economical — no repairs, no replacement, lifetime use; (2) that it is comfortable — easy to walk on, less slippery than any waxed surface; (3) that it cleans easily — its smooth, jointless surface can harbor no germs; (4) that it is beautiful — the user can specify any design to be carried out in any combination of colors; (5) that installation is dependable, as it may be installed only by persons certified as competent. Plate 7 shows terrazzo used on a classroom floor in St. Columbia's School, Louisville, Kentucky. In connection with the classroom shown in Plate 7, the archi-

tect, Mr. Walter C. Wagner, of Louisville, states that owing to his desire to eliminate plaster, glazed or mat tile was used throughout the building – corridors, lavatories, classrooms, etc. Glazed tile was used throughout the lavatories, while in corridors and classrooms, glazed tile was used near the floor, and mat (non-glazed) tile above to eliminate glare and to brighten the walls. Ceilings are acoustically treated. Of tile, Mr. Wagner says, "it is slightly more expensive than plaster, but once installed, can be kept clean easily with a little soap and water." *Architecture and Design* for April, 1940, is devoted to a review of Mr. Wagner's work.

VII. The Difficult Problem of Lighting

The number of difficult technical problems involved in properly lighting a functional school plant is illustrated by the planning which was found necessary in designing the Jenny Tucker Baker Elementary School [7] near El Monte. Months of research by the District Superintendent, Mr. Charles D. Gibson, and his architect, Mr. Henry Wright, associate of T. C. Kistner of Los Angeles, were necessary before final decisions on lighting were reached. The following comments by Mr. Gibson will prove valuable to the principal and superintendent who face the problem of erecting a new school building.

> One of the biggest problems to cope with in building a school is the proper orientation of the rooms to provide proper natural lighting. Selection of available sites, real estate values, geographical location in relation to student population, all are factors which in the past have afforded formidable obstacles to proper classroom exposures. We believe this classroom with the fixed louver brightness control and bilateral lighting, regardless of orientation, will provide illumination superior to manually controlled north light which has been considered ideal in the past.
>
> The fixed louvers, noted in the photographs, are made of redwood, and are built in units for each individual window. They are hung on ordinary screen hangers, with a hook and eye on the bottom of each louver to hold them securely to the

[7] See Plates 43, 44, 45.

wall. Each louver is 5¾″ wide and a short ⅜″ thick. They are mounted in overlapping positions so that there is no sky visible through them. There is clear space of from 3¾″ to 4½″ between the louvers allowing more light to enter than does the Venetian blind. By carefully plotting the sight lines, this width was found to be ideal because a wider louver would have had to be too heavy and thick to be effective at this span. The outside surface of the louver is painted aluminum for permanency and the inside or that part of the louver which is visible to the eye from within, has been painted a reddish brown, similar to the color of natural redwood, thus eliminating, as much as possible, brightness due to direct reflected light. Since the outdoor classrooms must necessarily be supervised by the teacher from within the room, the louvers were cut off 26 inches above the window sill, on the large windows, thus allowing a clear area for the teacher to see the activities of children in the outdoor classroom.

The louver units are easily removable for maintenance. It is possible to hang them on the outside of the rooms, because we used double-hung windows, instead of the awning type.

In order to overcome direct sunlight through the lower portion of the window, roller shades were placed on the inside of the room, so they may be drawn when necessary. These shades are mounted on metal rollers, so that they may be moved horizontally on the roller, to prevent any possible light streaks when the sun is at sharp angles to the window. This is the only manually operated natural light control in the room.

Each light fixture consists of a 500-watt silver bowl lamp, with three concentric ring louvers to shield the neck of the lamp from view. When located in a low ceiling, or large room, where one can look over the top of the louver, a conical baffle is placed on the lamp stem, where it does not interrupt the natural flow of light, but does prevent viewing the neck.

We installed this type fixture, because we felt that it would provide maximum efficiency and a minimum of maintenance worry. We have found on other installations in our school system, that the solid pan reflecting-type fixtures, using frosted globes, had to be cleaned every five days, if they were to retain anything like the coefficient of utilization they were capable of producing. We hope to lessen our maintenance woes by providing less surface on which dust may collect. We checked the efficiency of the silver bowl lamp at the best research sources available and found that it would undoubtedly be a satisfactory light and reflection source. The six

fixtures, each with a 500-watt lamp, are mounted in two banks of three fixtures each; a separate manual switch controlling each bank.

We did not include photo-electric cell control in each room, as we are now studying the light intensities in classrooms of the same exposure, in order to determine if a single photo-cell properly placed for a unit of four classrooms can be made to do the work of four photo-cells. Automatic control of both artificial and natural light is necessary to good lighting conditions. The less good lighting has to depend on human sensitivities, the better are the chances of having good lighting.

Determining the proper color to be used in the classroom presents considerable difficulty. Color controls light in part, lessens or increases eye strain, adds to the attractiveness of the classroom or detracts from it. We are slowly learning the possibilities of color in the school planning program. The "reflector value color chart" published in *Architectural Record* for April, 1935, indicates the intensity of light. The upper end of the scale appears as follows, the figures indicating the per cent of light reflected from each color respectively:

white	84.0	buff	55.4
cream	70.4	light green	53.6
light pink	69.4	light gray	53.6
ivory	64.3	light blue	45.5
yellow	60.5	aluminum gray	41.9
flesh	56.0	sage green	41.0

One of the materials which is attracting considerable attention among modern architects is glass.

The story of glass block is Buildings' Success Story No. 1. More than any other, the glass industry has kept pace with architectural progress by an extensive research program. This research and product development is nowhere better exemplified than in glass block. In a trifle of over five years of commercial production, more than twenty million glass block have been manufactured and sold. Never has a new building product caught on so quickly – Glass block production . . . creates what amounts to an entirely new architectural element: a light-giving wall.[8]

[8] *Architectural Forum*, May, 1940, p. 327.

The major advantages claimed for glass block are increased insulation against heat and noise as compared to solid walls, a profusion of evenly diffused light, and complete privacy. Within the last few years two functional glass blocks which mark a great advance in the usefulness of this new building material have been developed. One is a "light-directional" block; the other is a "light-diffusing" block. The light-directional block is of the prismatic type, that is, the light is refracted by the prismatic designs of both interior faces so that it is directed upward toward the ceiling, which has a higher reflective value than the darker floor areas. Objectional surface brightness is eliminated, because the light is directed above the eye level. The light-diffusing or "no glare" block is designed for use below the eyeline and transmits a softly diffused light in areas immediately adjacent to outside walls. Perfect light values may be secured by combinations of light-directional and light-diffusing glass block.[9]

Is the future of artificial lighting in our classrooms to be found in fluorescent light? This is produced by a tube containing mercury vapor activated by a filament in each end of the tube. Fluorescent light is "cold light," it is intense light, and considering the immense gain in illumination over old methods of lighting, is not expensive. An excellent article on the subject, *Fluorescent Light for Schools*, by Leonard E. Loos, will be found in *American School Board Journal* for November, 1940. Plate 8 shows an experimental installation in the Caledonia School, East Cleveland, Ohio, of fifty Mazda fluorescent lamps providing fifty foot-candles of illumination at desk levels.[10]

VIII. Modern Classroom Furniture

One of the basic principles underlying functional architecture in the modern school building is that ample floor space

[9] The attention of the reader is called to the photographs of school buildings in this book. Many of these buildings have used glass blocks.

[10] See *American School Board Journal*, December, 1940.

must be provided for children in order that freedom of movement may be assured. Movable furniture, therefore, becomes a necessary adjunct to functional school architecture. The old schoolroom desk and seat screwed to the floor are rapidly disappearing from the educational scene and within a few years will have disappeared forever into the mists of educational history.

Reference to the following illustrations will make clear the types of schoolroom furniture which modern engineering has evolved for use in progressive schools.

Plate 9: A new type of construction in mono-steel continuous frame with marked increase in strength and decrease in weight.

Plate 10: Heavy steel tubing connects the chair with the one-piece, steel, lifting-lid book box. The solid maple top adjusts to three position levels and two sloped writing positions. The posture chair has been scientifically designed, has a self-adjusting lower back rail, and swivels 45 degrees each way to a silent cushioned stop. Note foot rests for better posture and comfort.

Plate 11: Table at left is for individual use; at right, for two children. These tables combine strength, rigidity, durability, and ease of motion.

Plate 12: These chairs are scientifically designed to secure correct posture, are strong enough to stand the wear and tear of classroom usage almost indefinitely, and are so light that they may be easily moved by children, with the help of large-diameter solid steel gliders which operate silently and eliminate denting linoleum or scratching fine floors. The chair at the left is for general utility purposes, the chair in the middle for intermediate grades, the chair at the right for primary grades.

Mr. Will E. Wiley, Superintendent of Schools, Whittier, California, not satisfied with available types of furniture, designed the tables shown in Plate 33, and had them produced in quantity by the Curtis Cabinet Shop of Whittier. These tables differ from the usual student table in that two corners are rounded so that the pupils sit at an angle to each other. Two legs have been moved in separating the children and at the same time providing each with a generous working space.

The tables are very flexible in use, as two can be placed back to back to form an oval table for four children. Again, they may be arranged in a U-shape, as in the picture, for a group of six pupils. Since the frame is tubular chromium steel, the tables are light and can be moved easily. Adequate clearance from shelves to floor facilitates janitor service. They are built in various sizes to fit the different grades. Another very important feature is the adjustable foot that makes it possible to raise any given table from one-half to one and a quarter inches. The legs are equipped with rubberset steel gliders.

A time- and space-saving device in the modern classroom is known as a reversible panel which takes the place of the usual blackboard. The panel is covered with blackboard on one side and cork on the other, thus doubling the ordinary amount of working surface. Plate 13 shows the fixture in use as a blackboard; Plate 14, as an art easel, the leaf being brought forward on metal brackets to meet a color tray which catches any drip from painting; Plate 15, as a display shelf and work board.

IX. New School Buildings for a New America

> Schoolhouses should not be alike. In them may be incorporated the highest standards of safety, lighting, sanitation, economy and durability, but in educational layout they should represent the highest degree of adaptability to local educational needs. The local schoolhouse should be democracy's last line of protection. It should house no standardized program of education; it should represent no regimentation through educational patterns and fiats. The local schoolhouse should symbolize man's effort to explore, experiment, and to learn through participation.[11]

In order to make this discussion of modern elementary-school buildings as helpful as possible, a number of school plants erected within the last eight years have been selected for illustration, as representative of modern school architecture

[11] N. L. Engelhardt in "Modern Trends in School Planning," *American School Board Journal*, January, 1938, p. 23.

in the United States. Three qualifications are necessary at this point. First, there may be other school buildings equally successful as adventures in modern school architecture, since our list is by no means exclusive. Second, no perfect school building exists. Even the best-planned, best-built, and best-equipped building will, upon occupancy, develop faults which annoy children, teachers, and parents, simply for the reason that the architect, engineer, and contractor have to deal with certain intangibles about which they have to make the best guess possible. Third, the comments which follow are made from the standpoint of the practical schoolman who has to use the building, rather than from the technical standpoint of architect and engineer.

Group I. Functional Architecture

The characteristics common to the buildings in this first group are obvious: subordination of style and decoration to utility; austerity in line; solidity in mass; a "low center of gravity," i.e., the building clings to its site rather than soars away from it; scientific lighting; shortened traffic lines; classrooms with large available floor space; reduction of noise level.

1. Oakdale Union School, Oakdale, California, Architects: Mayo and Johnson, Stockton, California; Description, *Architectural Record*, October, 1940; *American School Board Journal*, June, 1940. (Plates 16, 17, 18, 19, 20.)

This building cares for the educational needs of seven former school districts whose children are now being transported by bus to this new consolidated school. Here is an excellent example of functional planning – a very simple, one-story building whose severe lines are relieved by the two-story auditorium and by curving walls bounding administrative and kindergarten units. Classrooms border three sides of the central playground, while the administrative unit (including a trustees' room) and home-making units are included in the auditorium wing. Behind the auditorium are cafeteria and woodshop, the cafeteria being directly connected with

auditorium to better serve community needs. Steel lockers are provided in adjacent halls for upper grade classrooms. Ceilings are depressed 12 degrees at hall line to permit utilizing reflected light from the ceiling down into the classrooms whose walls are finished in pale green or light tan depending upon location. Ceilings are acoustically treated, and classroom floors are covered with asphalt tile. Counter-sunk lighting fixtures placed near hall line of classrooms and controlled by photo-electric cells, afford supplementary light when needed. Glass block is used in kindergarten play alcove.

Classrooms are twenty-three feet wide by forty feet long, an unusually liberal allowance of floor space. Community needs are served by the auditorium which seats 1000 people and is equipped with a real "professional" stage instead of the limited, poorly equipped unit found in most elementary-school buildings.

2. Henry E. Huntington (W. L. Valentine Primary Unit), San Marino, California; architects: Marsh, Smith, and Powell, Los Angeles, California. Description: *American School Board Journal*, August, 1939, *The Nation's Schools*, January, 1941. (Plates 21, 22, 23, 24, 25.)

This complete primary unit consists of two parallel wings joined by a children's rest room to form an enclosed landscaped patio. One wing contains three classrooms; the other, two classrooms and a kindergarten unit. Each classroom has an entrance to its individual terrace eighteen feet wide. The classroom proper is forty-five feet long, divided into front alcove, rear alcove, and general activity section. Floor covering, asphalt in all room spaces. Ceilings, acoustical plaster. Classroom lighting, indirect type controlled by photo-electric cells. Color scheme in classrooms varied according to lighting needs.

3. Crow Island School, Winnetka, Illinois. Architects: Perkins, Wheeler, and Wills, Chicago, Illinois.[12] Description:

[12] Mr. Lawrence Perkins has written the author that the firm is very proud of their new Rugen School, Glenview, Illinois. An account of it will be found in *New Pencil Points*, September, 1943.

American School Board Journal, June, 1940; September, 1941. *Architectural Forum*, August, 1941. (Plates 26, 27, 28, 29.)

The plan of this "dream school" of Carleton Washburne, Superintendent of the Winnetka schools, consists of an administrative wing parallel to the street, and wings at either end at right angles to the axis of the main building. Wings projecting toward the street house kindergarten and primary units; those to the rear, middle and upper grade units. In Plate 26, the two large rooms at the right of the entrance are an art classroom and the library separated by principal's office. Plate 27 shows a primary classroom. Note the furniture especially designed by Eliel and Eero Saarinen; the white pine paneling on walls; low ceilings; ample window space; and at left, an exit to the courtyard. The work alcove seen in Plate 28 completes the instructional unit which can be seen from the outside in Plate 29, classroom at the left, work alcove to the right.

Crow Island School represents our farthest flung outpost in the field of school architecture at the present time, due to the fine co-operation existing between school authorities and architects.

4. Lou Henry Hoover School, Whittier, California. Architect: William Henry Harrison, Los Angeles. Description: *American School Board Journal*, April, 1940, *Architect and Engineer*, September, 1940. (Plates 30, 31, 32, 33, 34.)

This is an outstanding example of functional school architecture and one of the finest small school buildings in the United States. The long, low building appears firmly anchored to its hillside site and is in perfect keeping with a highly-restricted suburban area of one-story residences.

5. Jefferson School, Ottawa, Illinois. Architect: Louis H. Gerding, Ottawa. Description: *Architectural Record*, January, 1940; *American School Board Journal*, January, 1940. (Plates 35, 36, 37, 38.)

There is a substantial air to this building in which the solidity of mass and austerity of line have been relieved by careful designing, which places the auditorium at a point

which makes it easily accessible to the public, and connects auditorium and classroom wing by an impressive entrance which features glass block. Mr. Gerding's work is always good, and in planning this building he has shown great skill.

6. 109th Street School, Primary Wing, Los Angeles, California. Architect: A. S. Nibecker, Jr., Architectural Section, Los Angeles City School District. (Plates 39, 40, 41, 42.)

This recent addition to an existing building consists of six classrooms and auditorium together with several small utility rooms. This building has many excellent features — acoustic ceilings, linoleum-covered floors in classrooms and corridors, light colored classroom walls and interior trim, classroom exits to playground, work alcove with stainless steel sink in each classroom.

7. Jenny Tucker Baker School, Mt. View School District, Los Angeles County, California. Architect: Henry Wright, associate of T. C. Kistner, Los Angeles. (Plates 43, 44, 45.)

Like the Crow Island School at Winnetka, this represents a revolution in school architecture because it represents months of preliminary research followed by careful planning by Mr. Charles D. Gibson, Superintendent, and the architect.[13] The building consists of several separate classroom wings connected by open corridors. Each classroom has its own enclosed play area, part of which may be used for a garden. Plate 43 shows separate entrances from the street into three play areas. The connecting classrooms are seen in the rear. Plate 44 shows the end of one play area while immediately behind is a common play space and in the background the courtyard elevation of a classroom wing. Note the windows under roof line. Plate 45 shows the bi-lateral lighting system, specially designed lighting fixtures, window louvers and tilted ceiling.

8. Upland School, Upland, California. Architects: Marsh, Smith, and Powell, Los Angeles. (Plates 46, 47, 48.)

This is an excellent example of functional planning because of the placement of the auditorium near the street and the

[13] See pages 104-105.

removal of the classroom wing well protected behind the patio which is shown close-up in Plate 48.

9. Monroe School, Davenport, Iowa. Architects: Childs and Smith, Chicago, Illinois. Description: *The Nation's Schools*, February, 1941. (Plates 49, 50.)

Here is a functional school building which is as beautiful as it is useful. The room nearest us in the photograph (Plate 49) is one of the two large kindergarten rooms, the other adjoins it on the right in the front of the building with a connecting workroom between the two units. Next on the right is a second grade classroom; a very large and commodious administrative suite; vestibule; two first grade rooms with connecting shop; another first grade room, and in the projecting wing at the extreme right of the photograph, a first grade room connected with its neighbor by a workroom. At the rear of the building are six primary classrooms and a large auditorium, which is connected by a community room or social hall to the gymnasium. On the second floor are nine regular classrooms, a music room, general purpose room, art room, library, science room, a ladies' room, and a men's room.

This is truly a community school building and one of the best school buildings in the United States, for which Mr. Irving Schmitt, Superintendent of the Davenport Schools, deserves equal credit with the architects. The social hall or community room shown in Plate 50 is the first appearance known to the writer of space in an elementary-school building devoted to the use and enjoyment of fathers and mothers.

10. Fowler School, Fowler, California. Architects: Franklin and Kump, Fresno, California. Description: *Architectural Record*, February, 1939. (Plates 51, 52, 53.)

Another excellent example of functional architecture, built around three sides of a square, classrooms occupying two wings, auditorium-cafeteria the third. The inner court has a stage which provides for out-door assemblies. Each classroom has a door to its individual play area. The interior of the auditorium shown in Plate 53 will repay careful study, not only from its welcome departure from the conventional pat-

tern, but for its careful division between sloping space and level space (see item No. 9, p. 107) and for its unique stage with three distinctive features: generous floor-space, low elevation below the eye-level of the spectators and low, easy steps leading from the stage to the auditorium floor.

11. Farragut School, Bay City, Michigan. Architect: Joseph C. Goddeyne, Bay City. Description: *American School Board Journal*, May 1940. (Plates 54, 55.)

The most interesting feature of this attractive school building is the continuous glass wall of the classrooms, in which windows alternate with glass block (Nos. 300 and 301, Insulux, Owen-Illinois Glass Co.) Mr. Goddeyne suggests that it would have been preferable to use No. 350 up to six feet, six inches from the floor, and No. 351 from that point to the ceiling, as the former reflects light downward and the latter throws light upward to the ceiling.

12. Fancher School, Mt. Pleasant, Michigan. Architects: Merritt and Cole, Detroit, Michigan. Description: *American School Board Journal*, May, 1940. (Plates 56, 57.)

This is an excellent illustration of a plan which began with an instructional program and ended with a building which meets the requirements of that program most admirably. The building-mass has been softened in appearance by the kindergarten wing at one end, the stair-well at the other, and the large bay in the center. If funds had permitted, it would have been interesting to develop a primary unit at the right end of the building to balance the kindergarten. The corridor is beautifully designed from its acoustic ceiling to its terrazzo floor.

13. Jefferson School, Creston, Iowa. Architects: Dougher, Rich, and Woodburn, Des Moines, Iowa. Description: *American School Board Journal*, August, 1938. (Plate 58.)

This is an admirable example of a small community school built along functional lines. The austerity of the building mass is relieved by the deep kindergarten bay, the entrance portico, and the fine texture of the exterior walls. Much loving care must have been expended in planning this building

which includes classrooms, kindergarten, community hall, and administrative unit.

14. Elkader High School, Elkader, Iowa. Architect: Oren Thomas, Des Moines, Iowa. Description: *American School Board Journal*, January, 1938. (Plate 59.)

This secondary school building is included because it illustrates what contractors call "a complete glass block job" in contrast to part glass block and part window space as found in the Farragut School. Complete use of glass block in a school building will always have to contend with two psychological factors, the feeling of being shut in from the interesting and exciting world outside, and the perfectly human desire to look out and see what is going on in it. Mr. Thomas describes the glass block as follows:

> The outside walls are built of glass block (Owens-Illinois Glass Co.) 8 inches square and 4 inches thick. They are hollow inside and the air is partially removed which makes them very poor conductors of heat and cold. They have the resistance to heat and cold which a 14-inch brick-and-plaster wall would have. Criss-cross indentations on the glass diffuse the light rays and prevent glare. The blocks are manufactured so that the amount of light passing through can be controlled; different types of blocks are used on the sun and shade side.[14]

15. Overland Avenue School, Los Angeles, California. Architect: Ralph C. Flewelling, Los Angeles. (Plate 60.)

This is a long building having a double row of classrooms separated by a corridor. All classrooms on the rear open on to a wide terrace giving access to a large grass plot.[15]

16. Lincoln Grade School, Iola, Kansas. Architect: Lorentz Schmidt, Wichita, Kan. (Plate 61.)

This well-designed building contains ten classrooms, auditorium-gymnasium, kindergarten, administrative suite, and teachers' rest room. Type of construction: Architectural concrete; windows, architectural projected steel sash; classroom

[14] *American School Board Journal*, January, 1938, p. 56.

[15] See page 94.

floors, linoleum; corridor floors, asphalt tile; toilet room floors, terrazzo; stairways, terrazzo with chromium plated hand rails; lighting for stair wells is secured with glass blocks; lighting for corridors by use of glass blocks above black boards to ceiling; corridor walls and stair wells have glazed tile wainscot. This building has a combination auditorium and gymnasium. The stage has enough equipment for handling school plays. The floor is maple. A six foot wainscot is of glazed tile, and from there to the ceiling an unglazed tile is used, which makes it ideal both for gymnasium and auditorium purposes. The ceiling is of acousti-celotex making the acoustics good for auditorium purposes and also is a great help to the noise reduction in gymnasium work. Space for storing chairs when floor is used for gymnasium work is secured along the side wall which makes it convenient for disposing of the chairs.

17. Ivanhoe School, Los Angeles, California. Architect: A. S. Nibecker, Jr., Architectural Section, Los Angeles City School District. (Plates 62, 63.)

Owing to the hillside site on which this school is located, it has been necessary to grade the site into three levels. The school building has been placed upon the middle level so as to use the upper and lower levels for play areas. Plate 62 shows the building lay-out as seen from the upper level. Classrooms, each with its private exit to the playground, occupy the three wings in the foreground of the photograph. The wing seen in the background houses the auditorium and the administrative suite. The inner court slopes gently from the rear wing to the auditorium, the near half being lawn, the far half, cement to allow seating space for outdoor assemblies. A raised platform adjoining the auditorium provides a low stage. Classroom interiors are identical with the classroom shown in Plate 40. Plate 63 shows the street frontage of the auditorium. The short wing at the right houses the administrative suite. Ornamental metal-work is exceptionally pleasing.

18. Jackson School, La Salle, Illinois. Architect: Louis H. Gerding, Ottawa, Ill. (Plates 64, 65, 66.)

The average architect faced with the problem of building a four-room school would probably evolve a red brick "cigar box." The clever Mr. Gerding has made his school a thing of beauty by his delightful approach to the well-proportioned entrance and by the judicious use of glass block. By raising his main floor well above ground level, it has been possible to include two large playrooms in the basement. Especial attention is called to the well-lighted corridor.

Group II. Adaptation to Environment

The modern architect who wishes to develop a school building along functional lines often finds that local tradition (and sometimes local prejudice) preclude him from doing what he would like to do. Sometimes the physical setting in which a building is to be placed is such that it is more desirable to design a building so that it "melts" into its surroundings, than it is to throw discretion to the winds and build a solid, austere mass which would delight the modernist and distress the patrons of the school district.

The buildings in this group have been selected as excellent illustrations of adaptation to environment – physical, social, and cultural. The terms "physical" and "cultural" are easily understood, but it may be necessary to elaborate somewhat on the significance of the term "social" in this connection.

One of the trends in modern school architecture which has implications of the greatest importance to education is an increasing emphasis on the school as an expression of community life.

> No public school should be developed which does not have a community relationship. As indicated by the Division of Field Studies of Teachers College, Columbia University, in the survey of the schools of St. Louis, Missouri, the educational future for such a city may become a nursery-kindergarten-6-4-4 program. Here the buildings serving such a program might be called the *home school unit*, the *neighborhood elementary school*, the *community intermediate school* and the *regional educational center*, or the *youth center*. In successive steps

the broadening community circle is indicated in the names of the school centers. If, and as, school planning becomes more highly coordinated with the planning of other community services, a new type of community school must be conceived.[16]

1. Frankfort School, Frankfort, Kentucky. Architects: Leo L. Oberwarth and Sons, Frankfort. Description: *American School Board Journal*, October, 1937. (Plate 67.)

This fine school building has received great praise from architects and laymen for its perfect adaptation to its physical setting as well as for its conformity to the southern tradition in architecture. The main entrance is especially good, and the height of the four pillars is modified by the long frontage, the lines of which have been cleverly broken. Reading from left to right in the photograph: cafeteria, nurse's room, kindergarten, main entrance, library, auditorium. All classrooms (except the kindergarten) have been eliminated from the front of the building and located in wings projecting toward the rear of the site.

2. Lake Forest High School, Lake Forest, Illinois. Architects: Anderson and Ticknor, Lake Forest. Description: *American School Board Journal*, May, 1938. (Plates 68, 69.)

While this book is devoted to elementary-school buildings, these illustrations of a secondary school have been included because Lake Forest High School merges into its environment in marvelous fashion, an object lesson in meeting community tastes and needs.

3. Rollinsford School, Rollinsford, New Hampshire. Architects: Huddleston and Hersey, Durham, New Hampshire. Description: *American School Board Journal*, December, 1937. (Plate 70.)

Built in the traditional Colonial style, this building fits its New England setting. While massive in bulk, the building has good lines and is relieved by a charming, formal main entrance.

[16] From the Introduction by Morse A. Cartwright to *Planning the Community School*, by N. L. Engelhardt and N. L. Engelhardt, Jr. (New York: American Book Company, 1940).

4. Jefferson School, Jefferson, Wisconsin. Architects: Foeller, Schober, and Berners, Green Bay, Wisconsin. Description: *American School Board Journal*, June, 1940. (Plate 71.)

For a city of 2700 inhabitants, this building costing $158,000 (including equipment) represents unusual appreciation by its citizens of the educational needs of their children, as well as fine teamwork of superintendent of schools and architects. The room nearest to us in the photograph is the kindergarten (equipped with stage), next on the right, kitchen and lunchroom, and farthest on the right, an auditorium-gymnasium. These units are all connected so as to serve the social needs of the community in out-of-school hours. Unusual features in a school of this size are: large classrooms (40 feet long); glazed-brick wainscoting in corridors, toilets and gymnasium; hard maple floors in classrooms; ceramic tile on floors of corridors, toilets and stairways; rubber tile on floors of kindergarten and teachers' room.

5. Claremont School, Claremont, California. Architects: Marsh, Smith, and Powell, Los Angeles. (Plate 72.)

A conventional architect would place large double doors at the entrance and exit to the central hall of this building, and the public, accustomed to the traditional treatment of school buildings, would accept the plan without question. The architects who planned the Claremont School chose to leave the corridor open so as to frame this fine view of the trees in the rear of the site.

6. Robert E. Lee Elementary School, Owensboro, Kentucky. Architect: E. C. Landberg, Cincinnati, Ohio. Description: *American School Board Journal*, December, 1938. (Plate 73.)

Although more formal in appearance, and more conventional in line than Mr. Oberwarth's Frankfort School, this building has dignity, and respects in very adequate fashion the traditions of the South.

7. Carl L. Bailey School, Hillsdale, Michigan. Architects: Warren S. Holmes Company, Lansing, Mich. Description: *American School Board Journal*, November, 1938. (Plate 74.)

This gracious building fits admirably into the well-to-do

community in which it is located. The architects have endeavored to make the interior of the building as much like a colonial home as possible and as little like the conventional school.

8. Jenkintown School, Jenkintown, Pennsylvania. Architects: Ritter and Shay, Philadelphia, Pa. Description: *American School Board Journal*, September, 1938. (Plate 75.)

This building, like the Bailey School, has met successfully community tastes and needs and is the visible result of a carefully planned instructional program. The photograph shows the side elevation as the heavily shaded street makes a good view of the front elevation impossible.

Group III. Some Excellent Small Schools

The little red schoolhouse is fast disappearing from the American scene. Here are some modern equivalents:

1. Josephine B. Colbert School, Braintree, Massachusetts. Architect: Ralph H. Doane, Boston. Description: *American School Board Journal*, January, 1939. (Plate 76.)

This is a charming two-room building for kindergarten and first grade children, which has been planned to allow future additions. White trim across brick walls, and a generous bay window make this Colonial building unusually attractive. Asphalt tile on floors and acoustic ceilings are modern comforts not found in the Little Red Schoolhouse of 1840.

2. District School No. 121, Watts Siding, Minnesota. Architects: Carter and Meinecke, Moorhead, Minnesota. Description: *American School Board Journal*, January, 1938. (Plate 77.)

The excellent rural school building has many conveniences for children — a good classroom with library alcove; lavatories, cloakrooms; playroom and kitchen. In view of the fact that the usual one-room rural school is a disgrace to the nation, this building has real significance. For fear that the reader may miss the point, he should be reminded that as of January, 1938, Illinois reported 9,925 one-room school buildings; Iowa,

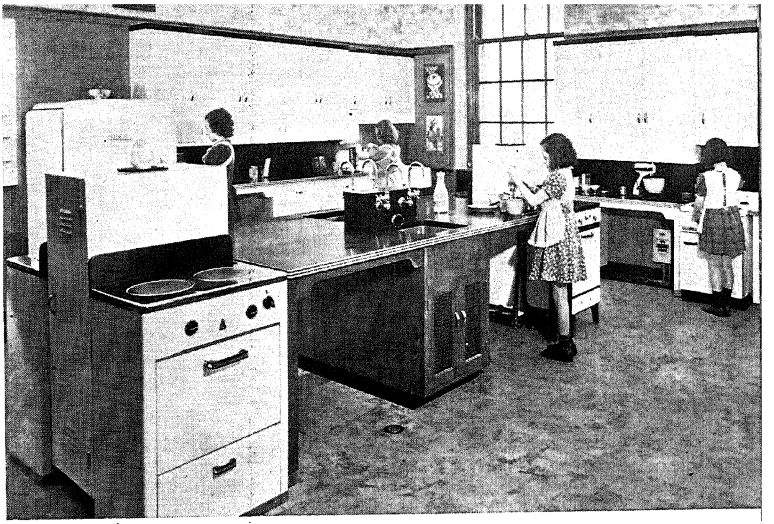
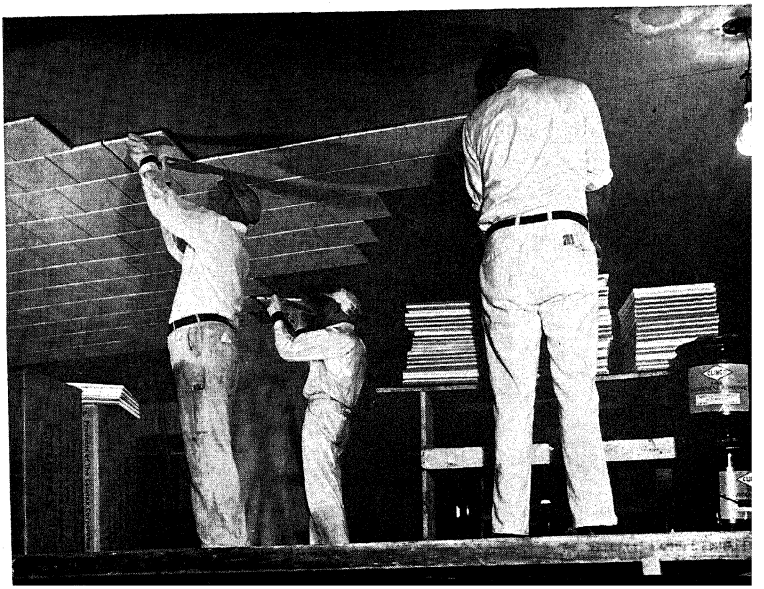


Plate 3. Household Arts Classroom, Harold Upjohn School, Kalamazoo, Michigan

Plate 4. Installing Celotex in Classroom Ceiling (Courtesy, Celotex Corporation)



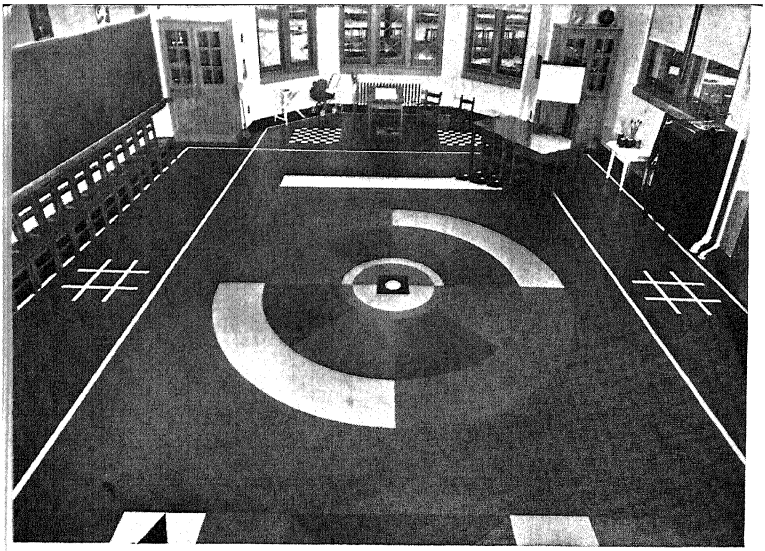


Plate 5. Kindergarten, North Anderson School, Anderson, Indiana (Courtesy, Congoleum-Nairn, Inc.)

Plate 6. Classroom, Laguna Beach Elementary School, California (Courtesy, Armstrong Cork Co.)

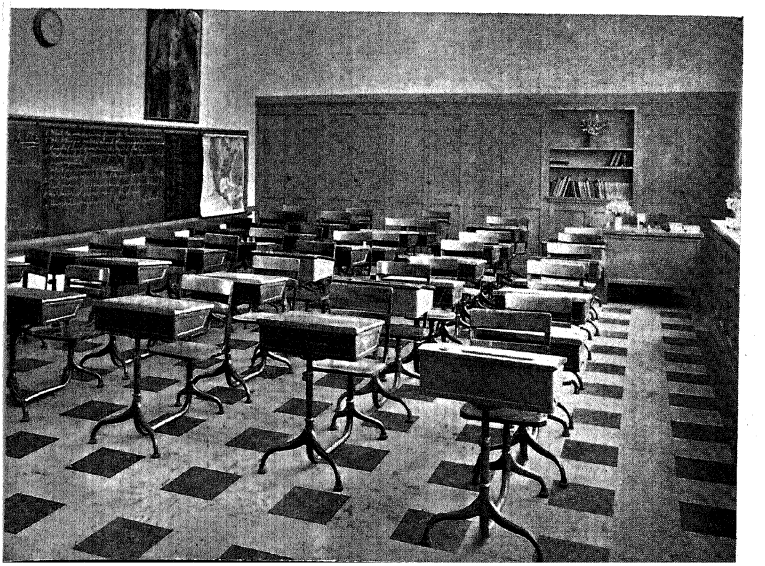
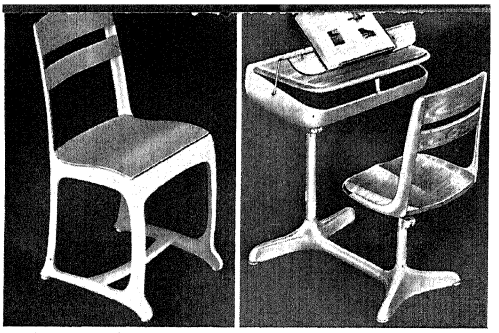


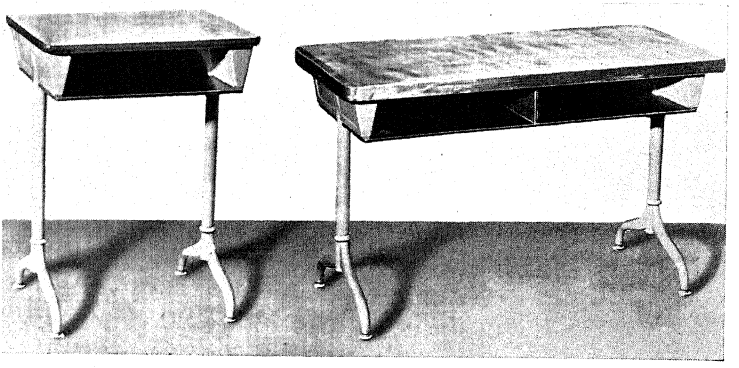


Plate 7. Classroom, St. Columbia's School, Louisville, Kentucky (Courtesy, National Terrazzo and Mosaic Association)

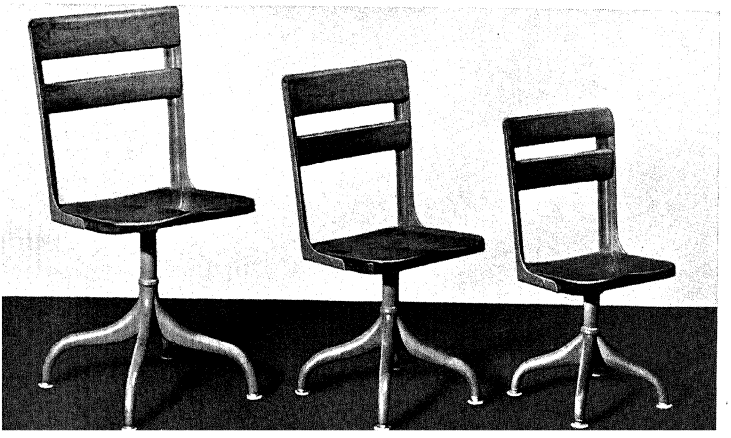
Plate 8. Classroom, Caledonia School, East Cleveland, Ohio (Courtesy, General Electric Company)

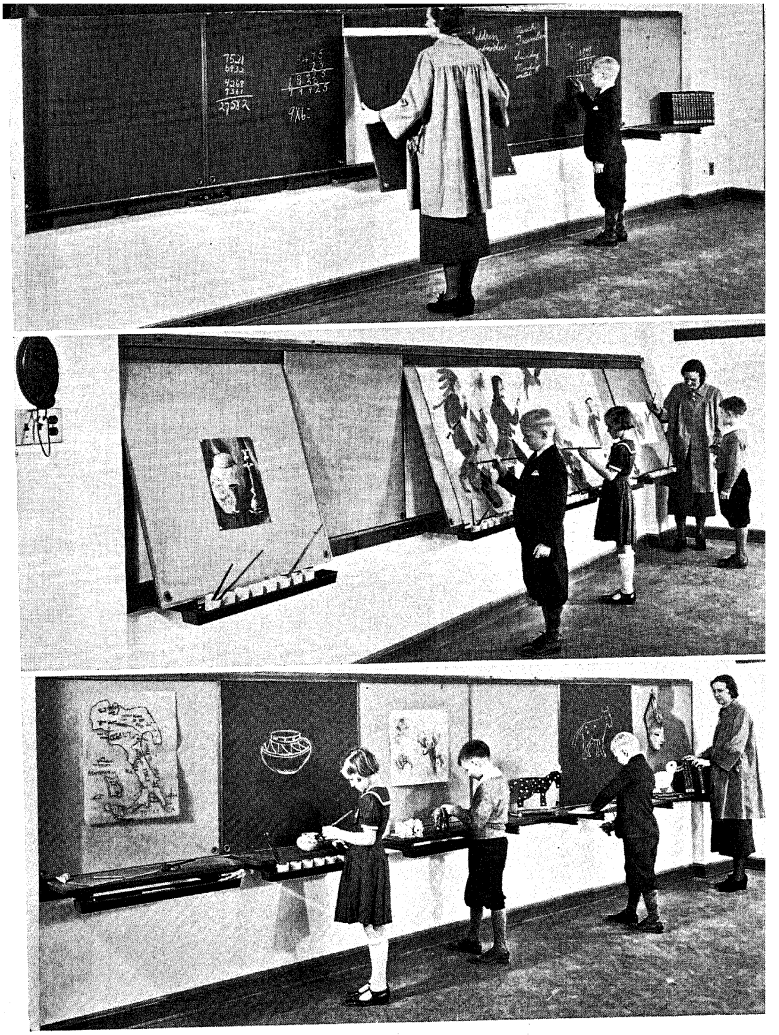




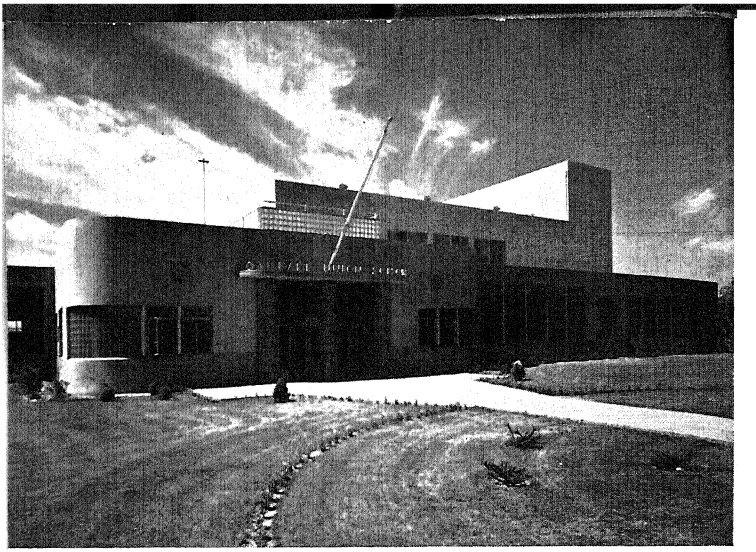


Plates 9, 10, 11, 12. Modern Elementary Classroom Furniture
(Courtesy, American Seating Company)

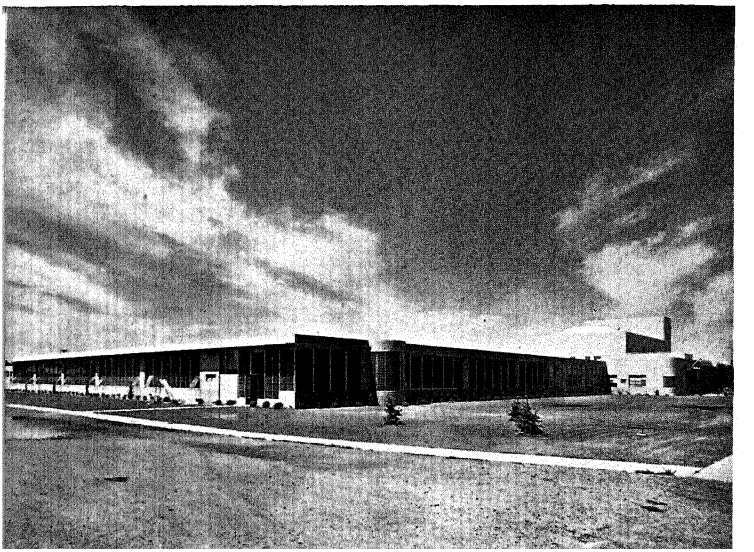


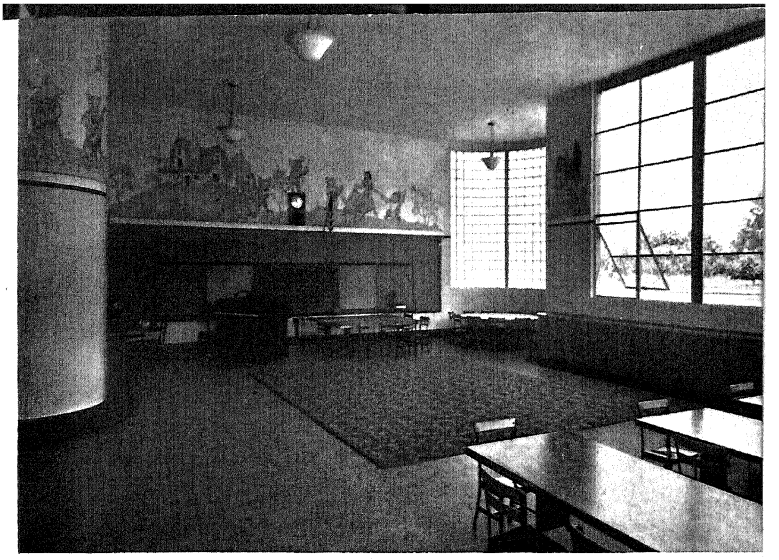


Plates 13, 14, 15. Austral Multi-Use Blackboard Fixture
(Courtesy, Austral Sales Corporation)



Plates 16 and 17. Main Entrance and Side Elevation, Oakdale Union School, California (Courtesy, Roger Sturtevant)





Plates 18 and 19. Kindergarten, Oakdale Union School, California (Courtesy, Roger Sturtevant)

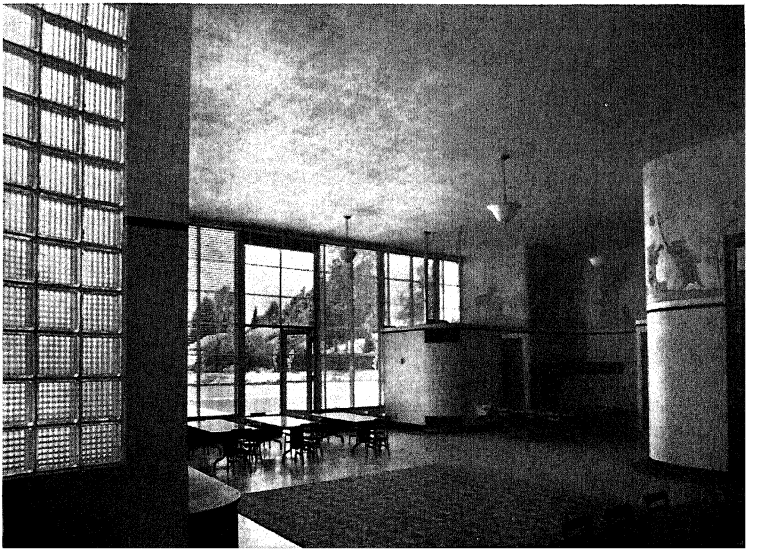
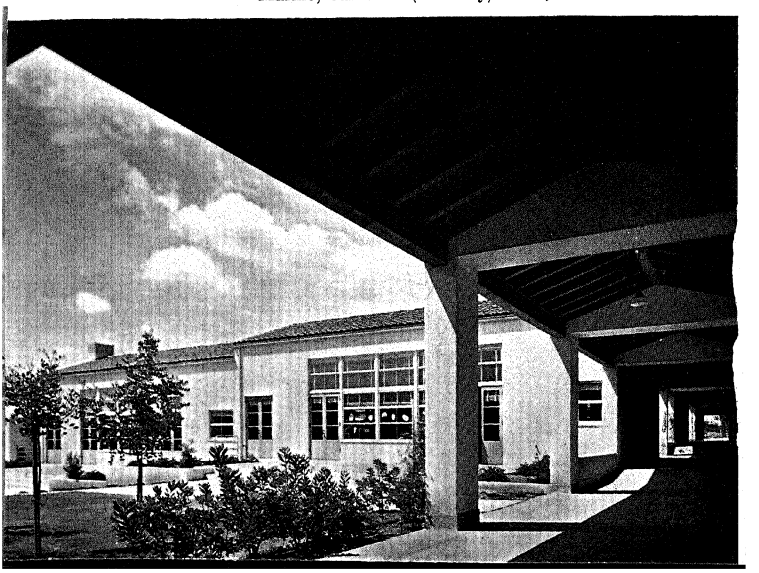




Plate 20. Corridor, Oakdale Union School, California (Courtesy, Roger Sturtevant)

Plate 21. Patio, Henry E. Huntington School, San Marino, California (Courtesy, Eaton)



9,115; Missouri, 7,357; New York, 7,251; Kansas, 6,777; Wisconsin, 6,529, and Nebraska, 5,928.

3. Gorman School, Quail Lake District, California. Architect: Richard M. Bates, Jr., Los Angeles. (Plates 78, 79.)

A completely self-contained two-room community school building designed to give the rural child all the advantages of modern education.

4. Leona School, Leona District, California. Architect: Roy C. Wilson, Santa Paula, California. (Plates 80, 81.)

A streamlined rural school building from its copper roof to its work alcove, and its stage for class and community use. The classroom is especially well designed affording generous floor space and excellent lighting. It is regrettable that the orientation of this building made it impossible to secure a photograph of the exterior which was free from shadows.

Notes on Chapter Four

1. The principal interested in watching developments in fundamental school architecture should keep his eye on the following publications:

Architectural Record, 115-119 West 40th Street, New York, New York.

Architectural Forum, Time and Life Building, Rockefeller Center, New York.

American School Board Journal, 540 North Milwaukee Street, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

Our Nation's Schools, 919 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

If the state in which the principal is located maintains an Architectural Division attached to the State Board of Education, he should ask to be put on its mailing list for current literature.

2. Engelhardt, N. L., and N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., *Planning the Community School*. New York: American Book Company, 1940. This is an invaluable reference book for all persons who believe that a school building should be the outward, visible sign of the Good Life in which children, teachers, and parents may participate on equal terms. Required reading.

3. Engelhardt, N. L., and others, *Elementary Classrooms*. Engelhardt's *School Building Portfolios*, Portfolio A. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941.

"A cross-section of planning of elementary classrooms as it has been carried on throughout the nation." This portfolio contains seventy-six plates each showing view of classroom, floor plan, and architect's notes. The reader will need to exercise good judgment as he looks over the floor plans, since the authors have elected, as they say, to present a cross-section of planning. Obviously, therefore, many of the plans are entirely inadequate in their provision for child experiences. Classrooms 28 to 30 feet in length do not meet the standards of functional architecture.

This portfolio is a valuable contribution to educational literature, and the appearance of subsequent portfolios will be eagerly awaited.

4. Erickson, Arthur E., "An Elementary School Painted for Children," *American School Board Journal*, May, 1941. Helpful suggestions leading to better classroom lighting.

CHAPTER FIVE



The Principal and the Growing Child

IN THE PRECEDING CHAPTERS we have discussed the function of the elementary-school principal as general manager, and we are now ready to discuss his function as director of learning.

I. Our Philosophy of Education and Growth

Before he assumes that important role, the principal needs to restate his philosophy of education in as practical fashion as possible, then from that source derive some general statements which will serve as a basis for future action. The following assumptions are offered for consideration:

1. The major function of the educative process is to ensure the continuous growth of children in all directions in which growth is possible.

2. To that end, the principal needs to know all that he can learn as to the growth and development of children before he assumes the direction of their learning. He will find, at the outset, that he is dealing with two factors in the growth process: *maturation* and *learning*. By maturation, we mean the slow, gradual maturing of the organism due to inherited

and acquired characteristics. Over this the principal has little or no control. All he can do is to observe, keep his fingers crossed, and pray for the best. By learning, we mean the child's modification of his conduct or behavior through experience in his physical and social environment. Here the principal can do a great deal both by setting up in the classroom an environment rich in experiences and by guiding the child's judgment as he reacts to his environment.

The principal will master certain facts regarding the growth process which are of major importance:

> That the child is a living, growing organism which follows certain laws of growth conditioned by nature and environment.
>
> That in the years between infancy and adult life the child reaches successive levels of development.
>
> That data concerning these levels of child growth are sufficiently abundant and accurate to allow us to plot the growth pattern of the average child with great exactitude. In other words, we can predict in advance the various stages of development he will reach in succession, and the approximate age at which each will be attained.
>
> That such a timetable or schedule, valuable as it is as a guide to the life story of the *average* or *statistical child* has little predictive value for the *individual child*, since each child appears to follow a growth pattern of his own.

With this background established, let the principal decide to make his attack as director of learning upon three fronts:

> 1. To develop a growth and development program for his pupils which will assist each child to grow into successive stages of development according to his particular growth pattern. If the growth of the child is delayed, the principal will locate the reason for the delay and do something about it.
>
> 2. To develop a sound academic program so that his pupils will produce satisfactory achievement in the school subjects.
>
> 3. To secure the emotional and social development of his pupils so that each child shall be an integrated personality and be socially acceptable both to himself and to others.

We know that children grow from babyhood to adulthood. We know that certain specific maturation factors are at work

which bring the small baby to sit up with support, sit up without support, crawl, creep, stand with support, stand without support, walk, hop, skip, run, climb stairs, add words to his spoken vocabulary, and so on, through many physical, mental, social, and emotional changes to and through puberty, until he reaches the status of being fully grown up. By averaging the records of many thousands of children, it is possible to say that for most children walking becomes an accomplished fact at twelve to fourteen months, that the first permanent teeth appear between five and six years of age, that puberty comes between the twelfth and fourteenth years, and so on, resulting in a timetable of maturation and development that is valid for great numbers of children. What we do not know is what kind of timetable is valid for a particular child, who, while following the general timetable in sequence, departs from it radically at certain intervals, owing to the presence of the many factors which make each person a unique individual.

To make this clear, let us take a crude illustration. Let us imagine that one thousand people are to start from Sierra Madre, a foothill town at the foot of the Sierra Madre Mountains, to climb Mount Wilson. They are to start at five A.M. and meet for luncheon in the hotel on top of the mountain at one P.M. Suppose we see them off. They all start together, but in a few minutes the great crowd has spread out, some persons rushing ahead, some striking a somewhat slower pace which covers the course adequately, while still others go very slowly to conserve their strength for the stiff grades to be encountered later on. Suppose we imagine ourselves at that point in the route where the steep mountain trail reaches the wagon road up the mountain. For the average hiker, this point, which marks the end of the hardest part of the climb, should be reached by ten-thirty or eleven A.M., allowing time for rest and refreshment on the way up. We may be sure, however, as we sit comfortably at the intersection, that the one thousand hikers will go by us in a continuous stream from an hour or more, depending upon their individual rates

of progress. If we were to meet them all at one P.M. and ask each to write out his time schedule for us, we should find out not only that there was great variation among them but that the rate of progress of each individual varied from time to time from slow to rapid or the reverse. Each has developed a rhythm or cycle of activity which seems appropriate to his constitution.

The moral is obvious. The whole duty of the teacher is to know the timetable of growth and development through which children in the mass have gone in the past and, knowing that each child will cover the whole course eventually, but that the time of his arrival at any given point is unpredictable, will do her best to help the child reach his successive destinations at the times which his individual powers seem to indicate. If he exceeds his schedule or falls behind at intervals, she will do her best to ascertain the reason so that she may be of maximum help. That such an outlook on the teacher's duty is vastly different from that held by conventional school people needs no argument.

II. Preschool Growth

The author of this book holds to the theory that the secrets of learning may be revealed to us only as we understand the secrets of growth. Public-school people who look upon the entering kindergarten child as an unformed, under-developed being are blind to the fact that tremendous growth has been experienced by the five-year-old before he comes to school, and that in many ways the patterns of living have been fixed during these early formative years. If one could understand clearly all that takes place in a child from birth to his fifth birthday, methods, procedures and practices would be radically changed in the elementary school from the kindergarten to the sixth grade inclusive.

The child grows continuously but unevenly as the various types of growth to which he is subject appear to march along, each at its own sweet will. He reaches a certain level of de-

velopment, apparently rests there for a season, and spurts up into something new and strange. We say "apparently" with reason: all the time that he appears to have stopped growing as judged by the outward and visible signs, various kinds of growth are going on under the surface of things, the cumulative effect of which will eventually push him on to a higher growth level.

Possibly the best manual for the elementary-school principal on this vitally important subject is *The First Five Years of Life*, by Arnold Gesell and others.[1] Exactness of observation, clarity of thought, an easy, flowing style, and delightful illustrations make this an outstanding reference work in the field of child growth and development. The framework within which the materials of the book are placed — motor characteristics, adaptive behavior, language behavior, and personal-social behavior — helps the reader to think logically. The following notes on child growth and development are freely adapted from Gesell.

The busy principal may say, "Why should I wade through material on the one- to five-year-olds when I have so much to do?" For three reasons:

1. Because you tend to look upon the child who comes to school for the first time as a kindergarten pupil, as a little cherub trailing a cloud of glory from Heaven which is his home. You say to yourself, "Now I can really make something out of him" — a naive conception which will have to be revised sharply. These little children entering your kindergarten are battle-scarred veterans of a long series of major encounters with life, are the heroes and heroines of hundreds of hair-raising adventures such as *you* went through when you were little and which you have conveniently forgotten. When you become realistic about this, you have reached a point in your thinking where you are ready to "supervise" your kindergarten with some chance for success.

2. Because you need to learn how to observe children. The techniques reported here will stand you in good stead in observing your own young hopefuls.

[1] New York: Harper and Brothers, 1940.

3. Because, as you read these notes on the behavior of little children, you will realize how often the children under your care tend under stress to revert to earlier behavior patterns. The clue to the distressing behavior of an eight-year-old may lie somewhere in his history on the three- or four-year-old level.

The following brief statement summarized and adapted from Gesell will give the principal a background against which he may see his entering kindergarten children with greater clarity.

A. *The third year*

> This is a delightful age. Infancy superannuates at Two and gives way to a higher estate. The transition is not abrupt but is evident in many quaint anticipations of maturity, serious for the child, amusing to us. . . . To understand the three-year-old, we must recognize his almost complete ignorance of the wide world beyond the nursery. This unsophistication accounts for his picturesque seriousness, his intellectual confusions, his boners.[2]

Like Two he enjoys muscular action, but unlike Two, is able to sit quietly at a congenial task for (to him) a relatively long period. Motor control has increased — he can make a tower of six or seven cubes piled one on the others. He has learned to drive the bodily machine of which he is both owner and driver with considerable skill — can run smoothly, increase and decrease speed without difficulty, turn sharp corners, manage sudden stops. He can climb stairs in grown-up fashion, alternating his feet. He can forsake Kiddie-car for tricycle.

His motor co-ordination has improved but is exceedingly "spotty," that is, he is able to refine some muscular acts very well indeed, while others are still beyond him, or at best, clumsily done.

Like Two he solves the problems of daily living by reference to the tried and familiar behavior patterns, but if a given

[2] Gesell, *op. cit.*, pp. 40-41.

behavior pattern fails to work in an emergency, he is helpless to modify it in order to save the day.

His vocabulary has greatly increased; he has a stock of a thousand words or more, in all stages of comprehension and application from merely pleasant sounds, which he repeats for fun, to words which really clarify his concepts. He indulges in dramatic play, representing situations with which he is familiar, and talks incessantly as he acts. Comprehension of the ideas behind words has increased enormously.

He has become a real person, both to you and to himself. He can limit, to a certain degree, his sphere of action in relation to yours. He can look into the future sufficiently to surrender an immediate, modest pleasure to obtain a greater favor later on.

The exterior world is "ganging up" on him to a sufficiently large extent so that, at times, he feels very insecure and as a result becomes emotionally unstable. While he accepts the company of other children, he still prefers to play by himself.

Home duties are fairly well conquered. He takes care of his personal needs; he has progressed greatly in his management of his clothing and his food; and he responds readily to the requirements of the social group in which he lives.

> On a primitive and miniature level, the third year marks a kind of adolescence, a coming of age. . . . Like the adolescent of the teens, he graduates into broader social life. But like this same adolescent, he does not always find it easy to cut from his moorings. He returns gladly to the comfort of parental protection after brief adventures in self-dependence.[3]

B. The fourth year

He can run very well indeed, and has full control of his body while running. He can make horizontal jumps; this is something new, as Three can only jump up and down. He likes to do motor stunts within the range of his abilities and enjoys recognition of them.

This is the Golden Age of the question. A bright four-year-

[3] Cesell, *op. cit.*, p. 46.

old can elaborate and improvise questions almost endlessly. It is likely that this incessant talking answers a developmental need for better articulation and that he needs continuous practice in speaking. He speaks in sentences, many of them remarkable for their complexity of form.

He is rapidly becoming socialized in the sense that he likes to associate himself with a small group of children in preference to individual and solitary play. He is as egotistical as he is sensitive to the opinions of others. He is a born "fibber" — he prevaricates readily, partly to extricate himself from difficult situations, partly because his lively imagination makes it difficult for him to distinguish always between fact and fiction.

C. The fifth year

> The period of early childhood is coming to a relative close at five years. The five-year-old may not be ready for the technicalities or abstractions of reading, writing and sums for another two years. But he is no longer tied to apron strings. He endures and even enjoys the separation from home demanded by a kindergarten.[4]

Muscular control is well advanced. He has a good sense of balance, has learned to skip, and has sufficient bodily control to take to dancing easily and joyfully. He has learned order and definiteness and detail. He has a good concept of time — he knows he is five years old, can count objects up to ten, can tell a long story with sufficient accuracy to manage his sequence of events correctly. He is realistic rather than romantic or fanciful in his literary tastes. His questions decrease in quantity and increase in quality. He asks questions to find out what he needs to know rather than just to hear himself talk. Language is now essentially complete in structure and form.

He has almost completed his adjustment to the social group at home, is independent, self-sufficient, dependable, and obedient. He adjusts easily to the new social groupings which he meets at school and is developing "social concern" toward

[4] Gesell, *op. cit.*, p. 52.

others. He likes people and has confidence in them. He has not yet learned disillusionment.

III. Fundamental Facts About Growth

In the summaries given above, the reader will notice the mixture of maturation factors and learning factors in the child's development. The principal should always direct the learning of the children in his school against the background of the developmental factors involved in the growth process. Meek[5] states five facts about growth which are fundamental:

1. *Development is continuous* — each new development emerges from the old and leads on into future changes.

2. *Development is integrated* — physical health, mental alertness, emotional relaxation are aspects of one dynamic whole. Each aspect of the child's life affects every other part.

3. *Children change* — the mother loses her baby and gains a child, only to see him become, in a few years, a youth with lanky legs and fuzzy face.

4. *Development is uneven* — all kinds of development do not take place at the same rate.

5. *Children are different* — children who are perfectly well and strong may develop at different rates and in different ways. Each individual sets his own pace and follows his own pattern of development.[6]

In an interesting article by Jessie Stanton of the Harriet Johnson Nursery School, "What Is Education for the Child Before He Is Six?"[7] it is pointed out that there are "certain fundamental facts of childhood which a nursery school must recognize and meet intelligently," facts which should have meaning to elementary-school people as well.

1. *"The first fact is the obvious one, that a child has a body that is growing which he needs to use effectively."* The mod-

[5] Lois Hayden Meek, *Your Child's Development and Guidance* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1940).

[6] Meek, *op. cit.*, pp. 4, 5 (adapted).

[7] *Progressive Education*, April, 1939, p. 227.

ern point of view in elementary-school education places the conquest of the physical or bodily skills as a prerequisite to all other learning. One of the major points to be observed in estimating the success of a school is its management of the playground, its equipment, its provision for games and the extent to which the children participate in them, the general health-rest-nutrition program followed in the school records on children's growth, and the follow-up on those records.

2. *"A second fact – is that the child is going to be with people for much of his life."* Success in the battle of life depends upon one's conquest of the social skills – how to make the most of myself without injuring anybody else, how other people can contribute to my development, and how I can help to enrich their lives.

3. *"Another fact – that the child is going to be with himself and his feelings all of his life."* Success depends also upon the conquest of the emotional skills and attitudes. One has to control one's temper, one has to conserve his emotions and not waste them, one has to learn not to take the hard knocks in the day's work too seriously. Once he learns these adjustments to life, he becomes more tolerant of others, more willing to make allowances for other people's little peculiarities of disposition. The elementary teacher needs to know why her boys and girls have emotional upsets; to realize that with most children their emotional troubles are caused by the fact that, confronted with situations which confuse them, they often select wrong solutions. Here is an opportunity for the teacher to help the children find the right solutions.

4. *"The fact that the child is in a world of buzzing confusion and complexity which he must sort out and clarify and organize."* Miss Stanton points out that there are two elements in the educational process – having experiences and then doing something about them. One of the tragic failures in the misuse of the activity program was that so many children had so many delightful experiences from which so little actual learning took place. The elementary teacher must be constantly alert to the need for interpreting to the child the Age of Power in which he lives.

> It all comes down to the fact, doesn't it, that in order to teach one must keep on trying to deepen one's understanding. Teachers must be constantly studying, constantly trying to see the children with new eyes, and to be more and more aware of what they are doing with those dangerous weapons that we call words, which may be used to threaten or condemn or to build up new confidence. . . . To be a good teacher, she must be aware of the problems that children are dealing with, the kinds of things they are wondering about. It is a job that takes all one's strength and wisdom.[8]

IV. The Vexing Problem of Observational Records [9]

There is a great deal of interest at the present time in keeping observational records of children. This procedure has great value in helping us to understand children and to keep closely in touch with their successive stages of growth and development. No one has yet devised the perfect record form. Each has its values, and each has its limitations. It is hoped that the form suggested below may be a step forward.

A sample record form

By way of introduction it is suggested that persons interested in observing the behavior of children use the following material merely as a source from which each may devise a school record form satisfactory to herself. Probably no teacher will accumulate all the information noted below on every child in her room or even on any one child. In the course of time, however, much of this data will be known to the teacher even though she does not put it into written form. Existing records will usually supply the information for Part I, General Identifying Data; Part II, School Data; Part III, Home Data; and Part IV, Growth Data. The teacher should have mastered thoroughly these background facts about a child before she sets to work to observe his behavior. It is suggested further

[8] Stanton, *op. cit.*, p. 233.

[9] The author acknowledges gratefully his indebtedness to Dr. Elizabeth Woods, Los Angeles, and Dr. Claire Zyve, New York, for many ideas embodied in this section.

that the principal go into partnership with the teacher in keeping observational records in order to have practical experience in this direction.

It is essential that the information suggested in this record be gathered in the right way and not the wrong way. Home data, for example, cannot, as a rule, be secured by direct approach: "Now, John, let's see, your father ran away and your mother got a divorce, didn't she, John?" Nearly all of it will have to appear through such confidences as the child may make to his teacher from time to time, or be gathered from John's unconscious revelations as he cleans the erasers after school or from what fellow teachers or the principal know of neighborhood history. That is why no time limit can be set for a record of this kind and why we cannot say, "Take this record and fill it in completely by next Friday afternoon." It will be a very slow, very leisurely, very patient accretion of little bits here and there. Some of the facts may be learned by questioning, but most of it will come through the teacher's keeping her eyes and ears open as she works with children. Here is one reason, at least, why a teacher needs to be with her class at least a year. If she can be with them two years, she will learn much more, and if, by any miracle, she can be with them three years, she will be in a fair position really to know something about her boys and girls.

Since a record blank often appears very blank, the present form has been made out for one John Jones, who exists only in the writer's imagination. Any resemblance to any living person is purely coincidental.

Part I. General Identifying Data

Name: John Arthur Jones *Address*: 517 W. 60th Street
Birthday: August 7, 1930 *Place of birth*: Madison, Wisconsin
Telephone: Thornwall 3665 *Race*: American *Sex*: Male
Parents or guardians: Henry C. Jones (father)
Mary A. Jones (mother)
Name of school: Sixty-first Street *Teacher*: Bess Carrier
Date record begun: February 1, 1944

Part II. School Data

Grade: B6 *Number of years in school including present*: 8
Grades skipped: 0 *Grades repeated*: B3, B5
Number of different schools child has attended: 5
Attendance in present year: Regular
General conduct in school: Good
General conduct at home: Good
School record in general: Average
Rate of learning: Slow
General intelligence: Fair
Subject found most difficult in school: Arithmetic

(*Note*: John is a hard, faithful worker, but not mentally equipped to keep up with brilliant children of his own chronological age. By grace of his repeating twice, his added maturity helps to compensate for his I.Q. of 88 and allows him to compete successfully with the members of his present class, most of whom are younger than he.)

Part III. Home Data

Economic level of family: Fairly good
Father's occupation: Clerk in chain store
Mother's occupation: Power-machine operator
Composition of family: Father, mother, three children (one older and one younger than John), grandmother who acts *in loco parentis* until parents return from work. (Grandmother is a New Englander, very energetic and capable, and handles the children admirably.)
Emotional climate of home: Equable. Mr. Jones expresses great affection and respect for his mother-in-law and supports her heartily in such disciplinary measures as she finds necessary.
Attitude of children toward elders: Good.
Cultural conditions of home: Grandmother loves to read, has a small library of good books, and has interested the children in books and reading. Mother has an eye for form, color, and line, and her home shows that she applies her artistic ability in practical ways.
Physical conditions of home: Good; a sunny upper flat. The only disadvantage is the lack of play space for the children, as they have only a small community back yard for that purpose.
Child's economic status: John is not "gainfully employed." He receives an allowance to cover his school luncheons and twenty-five cents a week for spending money. In return, John has assumed responsibility for several household tasks in which he assists his grandmother. (His specialty is making beds.)

Child's social status: He gets along well with his brother and sister, plays amicably with the neighborhood children, enjoys Sunday School and his Boy Scout troop. His present ambition is "to drive a tank in the next war," although he has little mechanical ability. He explains the tank idea by saying that "if you go to war in a tank and don't stick your head out, you won't get hurt," which is not bad reasoning, although open to argument.

Part IV. Growth Data

Height at date of this report: 53 inches

Weight at date of this report: 68 pounds

John is the short, stocky type. His height and weight when checked by a standard height-weight table appear normal for a boy of his build.[10]

Vitality: Rather low. John suffers from recurrent colds, which so far have not yielded to treatment. He is maturing so rapidly into the pre-adolescent phase of development that he has little reserve force at the present time.

Muscular control: Fair. The pre-adolescent phase is not conducive to physical grace.

Sight and hearing: Normal.

Organic development: On schedule, except for the fact previously noted that he is a rather slow learner. Perhaps this is owing not so much to lack of intelligence as to a congenital deliberateness of thought and comprehension which he has inherited from his father.

Speech: Vocabulary normal: mechanics, normal.[11]

Part V. Behavior Data

(Underline one item in each line)

Temperament: quiet active energetic hyperactive

Emotional stability: excitable impressive stolid poised

[10] Height-weight tables are highly unreliable unless broken down into types. For example, a tall slender boy of 12 who is 60 inches in height should weigh normally around 90 pounds. In other words, 53 inches/68 pounds and 60 inches/90 pounds are equally normal when considered in relation to build. Teachers worry a great deal about underweight and overweight in children. A good rough rule is that not to exceed 5 pounds underweight and 12 pounds overweight are to be regarded as normal variations and need cause no concern on the part of teacher or parent.

[11] Ability in speech is one of the accurate indices of growth.

Social attitude: distant friendly cordial
Mental reaction: confused slow normal quick
Social participation: unwilling normal enthusiastic
Responsibility: little normal marked
(Owing perhaps to home training by grandmother.)
Industry: lazy dependent normal marked
(John knows his limitations and tries hard to overcome them.)
Popularity: shunned ignored tolerated accepted sought
(For some reason John is very popular. He is liked equally well by boys and girls, possibly because he is so utterly normal. He has no rough edges against which another child might be bruised.)

What are "significant changes" in behavior?

Much has been written and more said in recent years regarding the value of observational records in the classroom, and throughout these discussions the teacher has been warned to note all phases of "significant changes" in behavior. The catch is, that no one has explained what changes to look for or what makes them "significant" or how to distinguish the "significant" from the transitory or trivial. The following suggestion is offered as a solution to the problem:

As pointed out earlier in this chapter, children grow from infancy to adult life through various levels of development, each of which has its characteristic behavior pattern. The three-year-old is not so much of an improvement on the one-year-old as he is a totally different being. The normal three-year-old is highly organized, efficient, and competent in meeting the problems of life on his age level. (Perhaps we should stop here to define "normal" as "being free from physical and mental handicaps, social maladjustment, and emotional instability.") The five-year-old, on the other hand, is not so much a new creation as he is a refinement and extension of the three-year-old. The nine-year-old is an unpredictable creature, all arms and legs, and anxious to impress on the world that he is a free and untrammeled soul who will not conform to authority and discipline. The twelve-year-old, on the other hand, is apt to be more stable emotionally, more social

in his attitude toward the group in which he lives, more reasonable, and more responsible. At fourteen, however, he is plunged into the storms of adolescence and once more suffers a transformation into something new and strange.

At each age-level, as has been said, the normal child maintains the general behavior pattern of that stage of development, or rather, his own immediate and highly individualized version of that pattern. Inside that pattern he tends to be fairly consistent in his actions and reactions. The intelligent teacher soon comes to recognize the behavior-pattern of each child in her class as he reproduces the history of the race at his level, subject to such modifications as are imposed on him by his heredity and environment and personal experiences.

Now, *the essence of an effective observational record is for the teacher to note and record sudden changes in, or departures from, the child's normal behavior pattern.* As long as his behavior pattern remains consistent, there is no need for recording his behavior, but if a normally gentle, sweet-tempered child suddenly develops temper tantrums or a high degree of irritability or a suspicious attitude toward the other children in the class, such changes should be recorded and analyzed until an explanation evolves from a series of observations over a period of weeks or even months.

The teacher should not construe this as meaning that every recorded change in a child's behavior pattern need be a change for the worse. A child who has been difficult, anti-social, suspicious, and "withdrawn" may suddenly make a readjustment and enter acceptably into the daily life of his social group. *It is this sudden departure from the child's growth pattern which is "significant."*

Another type of change in the child's behavior-pattern is a sudden spurt ahead into a new ability or quality which has hitherto been absent or dormant. A "follower" suddenly becomes a "leader" and displays marked executive ability, initiative, and the power to "make friends and influence people." It is altogether possible that changes of this sort are the precursors of a new stage of development.

Still another type of change lies in the flowering of new personal interests. The period between eight and twelve years is one of rapidly growing interests, marked both by intensity and variety. Among the many interest fields during this phase of growth are:

> Food, sleep, sex, personal appearance, reading for information, reading for pleasure, movies, clubs, gangs, playing a musical instrument, collecting, dancing, mechanics, aviation, handcrafts, and radio listening. The teacher's job at this point is to be alert to the development of new interests of any sort which are powerful enough to make lasting impressions on the boys and girls in her class.

The use of a daily "log" or diary by the child himself yields rich material. It is best to make this permissive rather than mandatory, as some children are not able to make interesting accounts of their personal experiences owing partly to natural reticence, partly to fear of ridicule, partly to lack of the ability to express themselves easily and accurately.

An inventory of physical growth needs

The following inventory for observing the physical growth needs of children was devised by Mrs. Emma Raybold of the Los Angeles City School District. It may prove suggestive.

1. *Signs of malnutrition*	Check below	Remarks if desired
a. How does the child appear?		
(1) Skin pale or sallow		
(2) Hair dry and dull looking		
(3) Dark circles under eyes (fatigue or poor diet)		
(4) Usually thin, spindly legs and arms; flat chest		
(5) Muscles stringy or flabby		
(6) Fatigue slouch		
(7) Expression pinched, anxious		
(8) Teeth decayed, gums spongy		
b. How does the child feel?		
(1) Easily tired		
(2) Nervous, irritable		
(3) Lacking in concentration		

	Check below	Remarks if desired
c. How does the child act?		
(1) Restless and overactive or apathetic		
(2) Fidgety, nervous, unstable		
(3) Finicky appetite		
(4) Sleeps poorly		
(5) Dislikes too many articles of diet		
(6) Wants too much candy		
(7) Susceptible to colds, sore throats, skin infections		
(8) Does inferior work at school		
2. *Postural defects*		
(1) Round shoulders with protruding scapulae, depressed chest, and protruding abdomen		
(2) Lateral curvature of spinal column (scoliosis)		
(3) Forward-tilting head		
(4) Forward curvature of the spinal column in the lumbar region (lordosis)		
(5) Pronated feet, or flat feet		
(6) Improper balance		
3. *Eyes and seeing*		
(1) Does the child have difficulty in seeing at the normal distance?		
(2) Does he frequently have headaches?		
(3) Does he complain of dizziness?		
(4) Does he have "afternoon nerves"?		
(5) Is his reading or spelling poor?		
(6) Are his eyes divergent or crossed?		
(7) Does he squint or show a state of unnatural winking?		
(8) Does he hold his book too near his face?		
(9) Are his eyes inflamed, watery, or discharging?		
(10) Does he frequently have sties or scaly, ulcerated, or swollen lids?		
(11) Does he assume peculiar postures when reading?		
(12) Is he an otherwise apparently normal child, but failing to make progress in school?		

4. *Ears and hearing*	Check below	Remarks if desired
(1) Is his expression anxious or listless, depending on temperament?		
(2) Is he inattentive?		
(3) Does he assume a peculiar listening posture?		
(4) Does he talk in too loud or too low a tone of voice?		
(5) Does he have earaches repeatedly?		
(6) Is there an ear discharge?		
(7) Is deafness evident?		

5. *Mouth and teeth*		
(1) Are the teeth prominent?		
(2) Are the gums sore or inflamed?		
(3) Are the teeth broken?		
(4) Are the teeth crooked?		
(5) Are the teeth far apart, causing lisping?		
(6) Is the breath offensive?		
(7) Are the teeth discolored?		
(8) Does he have toothache?		
(9) Is his articulation poor?		

6. *Signs of nose and throat disorders*		
(1) Blank expression		
(2) Running nose		
(3) Nasal voice		
(4) Mouth breathing		
(5) Sore throat		
(6) Chronic cough		
(7) Catarrh		

7. *Signs suggesting heart defects*		
(1) Is he pale?		
(2) Does he have a deformed chest?		
(3) Does his pulse beat rapidly at rest?		
(4) Is he very short of breath —		
on exertion?		
at rest?		
(5) Is he easily fatigued?		

Studying children in the classroom

The following abstracts [12] form a useful guide in studying the growth of children in the classroom. They are from a report, *Helping Teachers Study Their Children*, by Fritz Redl, collaborator on the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, Division of Child Development and Teacher Personnel. The study was made in December, 1940, at which time Dr. Redl was working with groups of teachers in Michigan.

What should we observe and record about children?

The teacher expects that this question can be answered for her by the research specialist. She wants a list of so many items "to watch out for" and thinks that by just checking them she will eventually get all that must be known about the child.

Whenever we give teachers a check list they have a tendency to think of it as complete and to be compulsively hypnotized by that list so that they see nothing around them except what is listed there. They also tend to squeeze the listed items out of their children and to be discouraged if their case material does not coincide with the items on the list.

How shall we counteract some of the difficulties that may arise?

Never start out with a ready-made list of things to look for. Put down anything significant which is observed about a youngster. There is no substitute for the firsthand observations of the teacher. There is almost no child upon whom the school does not have some information. Try to get a little more information about the physical condition and history of the child.

Try to get, without forcing, a little more information upon the home and sibling situation; not only about number and age and surface data but also a little about how the members of the home feel toward one another.

Use the contacts you have already made with parents (interviews, parties, P.T.A. meetings) to give them a chance to tell you more about their children. Encourage them even when they start what you call "rambling into nonessentials." Most parents, even those who are a little antagonistic, will be ready

[12] By permission of Dr. Daniel Prescott for the American Council of Education.

to tell you about their children's early life if you let them choose their own way. Besides what they tell you about the children directly, let them tell you their educational ideas and beliefs, even when these differ from your own.

Have no undue anxiety about whether things written down are good enough or whether they shape up to a well-rounded picture. The process of understanding children better is a gradual process. Continuous work contact with children gives the teacher a chance which most other workers do not have.

Do not be afraid of losing invaluable observations because of group teaching obligations. The more consistent traits of a youngster come up time and again in this or that situation and there may be a chance to notice them next time under more favorable observational circumstances.

Do not worry about forgetting what you saw. Even though there may not be time to record things immediately, you will be surprised to find how skillfully your memory later reproduces most of the things that have happened. If things should be forgotten, whenever similar observations turn up, those originally forgotten impressions will be revived.

The value of any one piece of information does not lie in itself alone, but in the way it happens to shape up with other data later.

How shall we describe child behavior?

The best accounts are those which state what the child actually does, not what the teacher thinks this may mean or how it affects her. The most frequent statements by which teachers replace such genuine descriptions are these:

Statements of personal feeling toward the child: "He is a swell fellow; I like him a lot." "I certainly do enjoy working with this youngster."

Evaluations: "This youngster does excellent work." "He is really a most gentlemanly little fellow"; "Does poor work most of the time."

Prognosis: "This boy is going to be a very good student"; "She will never amount to much. . . ."

Theories on what would happen "if": "He might do much better if he would only apply himself more"; "She would have better marks if she weren't so easily discouraged. . . ."

Attempts at casual explanations: "He has an inferiority complex." "This youngster's school trouble is due to a home condition. . . ."

Summarizing short-cuts of observations: "This girl is very

shy"; "John is a very withdrawn youngster"; "If he only weren't so insecure"; "Aggressive."

It is important to realize that nothing in itself is wrong with the statements mentioned above. However, they should be preceded by more concrete descriptions. It helps little to say that John has an "inferiority complex" unless we know in what ways it is shown. There are countless things children may do, all of which are potentially the result of inferiority feelings.

Most of the teachers who make general rather than specific statements of what they observe, do really know the observations they hide; for it was on those observations that they based their remarks. The difficulty is that most of them have been taught to consider the sweeping general summary more impressive than a patient registering of what really goes on around them. An effort should, therefore, be made to observe and describe specifically and to add general statements to the original observations.

V. *The Relation of Maturation and Learning to Reading*

The close relation between maturation and learning through school situations is clearly seen in the problems involved in teaching children to read.

Much has been written during the past ten years on this subject, the argument resting on the contention that since children vary so greatly in abilities, capacities, and experiences, not all children who are six years of age are able to learn to read. If reading is forced upon them, they form bad reading habits, and often develop an emotional block against reading which seriously militates against future progress in reading. Gray [13] defines reading readiness as "the product of the mental, physical, emotional, and social development of the child during his pre-school, and not infrequently also, his early school years."

While authorities differ in minor respects, there is general agreement that the component factors which make for reading readiness are: a keen interest in reading; reasonably wide experience; ability to solve simple problems and do abstract

[13] *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook*, Part One, *Child Development and the Curriculum* (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1939), p. 195.

thinking of a very elementary type; ability to remember ideas, word forms, and the sounds of words; a reasonable range of vocabulary; a command of simple English sentences; good health, vision, and hearing; ability to see likenesses and differences in word forms and to discriminate between sounds of words; normal speech organs; emotional stability, and some degree of social adjustment. In first-grade classrooms where a group of children, or in some instances an entire class of very immature children, have been placed upon a "reading readiness" program, caution should be exercised in seeing that the daily program is not merely an extension of the kindergarten program, but includes a thoughtfully-planned, systematic campaign leading to the conquest of those abilities and experiences which prepare a child for reading. Merely allowing the child to "grow up" into reading is not enough. Here the *learning factors* of child development should be utilized and stressed. *Maturation factors* can be assisted by good teaching.

From time to time, the elementary-school principal will find himself under heavy fire from parents and other irate citizens who honestly believe that a program of reading readiness which defers reading in books for many children from one month to a year is undermining the foundations of the republic. A carefully prepared program of education in parents' groups, giving the reasons why some children are not ready to read at the age of six, will do much to disarm criticism. One of the most potent arguments the principal can advance is that for twenty years, under the most formal and rigid types of reading instruction in primary grades, we developed an immense number of reading disabilities in the third and fourth grades. In other words, by forcing reading upon little children before they were ready to read, we formed bad reading habits and emotional attitudes against reading which dogged the footsteps of their victims throughout their elementary-school lives. We deliberately manufactured "hospital cases" in reading in the first and second grades, and then devoted most of the time allowed for reading in the middle

grades to their cure. It is conceded that a readiness program will delay the total product in reading until the middle of the fourth grade, but set against this the fact that children brought up on an effective readiness program face the reading problems of the middle grades without the handicap of bad reading habits and wrong attitudes toward reading.

VI. The Relation of Maturation and Learning to Emotional Adjustment

Another illustration of the relation between maturation and learning may be found in the child's progress in emotional adjustment to his home and school environments. Lawrence [14] describes in very effective style the tremendous burden laid upon the small child in adapting his personal needs, wants, and desires to the folkways, customs, and traditions of the social group in which he lives. Little by little, he surrenders his personal prerogatives in order to secure peace, approval, and security, and he is fortunate indeed if he lives in a family whose members help him through successive readjustments so that he does not emerge as an adult hopelessly ruined in the process.

> It may be helpful to think of the personality, not as a thing or collection of different traits and capacities, but rather as the dynamic process by which each individual strives to build up, maintain and protect his private world and express directly or in disguised fashion his basic feelings toward people and situations.[15]

It is apparent, therefore, that success in life depends, among other things, on a person's ability to maintain a private world in which he can live at peace with himself and from which he can make periodic excursions into the social world in which he

[14] Frank Lawrence, "The Basic Needs of the Child," in *Mental Health in the Classroom*, the *Thirteenth Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1940).

[15] Lawrence, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

lives without undue difficulty or shock. Lawrence sets as one of the goals of the mental-hygiene program:

> that the adults of tomorrow can and will build sane, integrated private worlds and participate in the development of a decent orderly society. . . . Mental hygiene in education is concerned with recognizing the unique idiomatic personality of each child and helping him, as far as possible, to achieve sanity and maturity by building his private world as free as possible from the childhood distortions and biases, the anxieties and hostilities, the warped and twisted beliefs and actions and feelings that will otherwise govern his adult life.[16]

What, then, is the principal's responsibility in promoting the emotional growth of children? First, to help each teacher to build and maintain for herself a normal social and emotional life. Second, to develop normal social and emotional living in her children. Witty [17] lists some of the reasonable satisfactions to which the teacher is entitled, as necessary recreation, sleep and nourishment; freedom from worry, anxiety and frustration; self realization through creative expression, and identification with groups of people who are going somewhere and doing things worth while, adding that

> far too many teachers consciously or unconsciously hold an idea of self in which deprivation, denial and abstinence are powerful elements. In some cases, this ideal results in a denial of many normal appetities and satisfactions. Such a personality tends to alienate children and young people.[18]

The elementary principal needs to reflect upon the causes which led to this conclusion:

Many teachers come from homes where the Puritan tradition has warped the teacher's emotional life during childhood.

Many teachers – not only those described above but others also – have associated themselves with evangelical churches where the concepts of original sin and of the Lord as a God of Wrath rather than a God of Love are stressed.

[16] *Ibid.*, pp. 23-24.
[17] *The Thirteenth Yearbook, op. cit.*, p. 39.
[18] *Ibid.*, p. 40.

Many teachers who have led normal emotional lives during childhood do their early years of teaching in small communities where narrowness, bigotry, envy, and censure are prevalent. In conforming to this social pattern with the very understandable desire to hold her job, the teacher gradually loses her resiliency and her will power.

Many teachers are carrying excessive home burdens in assuming responsibility for the support and care of aged or sick relatives. Denied a normal emotional life by the demands of the members of her family, the teacher enters upon a life of self-sacrifice and self-abnegation.

The author of this book has found it almost insuperably difficult to persuade the teacher who is bound by iron chains to her home and relatives that she must have a degree of freedom to live her own life (in part at least), to work for it and, if necessary, fight for it. Too many mothers have convenient heart attacks just when their teacher-daughters are about to leave home for an evening of innocent and wholesome relaxation.

It is not difficult for the teacher to develop desirable social and emotional growth in her children. The secret, if there be a secret, is that the teacher has a kind and loving heart, is sensitive to the needs of children, and does not substitute emotion for intelligence in meeting those needs. Continuous observation, creating and maintaining a rich and challenging classroom environment, the power of subtle suggestion as opposed to domination and "preaching," a fine sense of timing so as to capitalize on the unexpected circumstance for the child's good, and the strength of character which will not be satisfied with less than a child's best effort—these are the ways that lead to success.

Notes on Chapter Five

1. Gesell, Arnold, and others, *The First Five Years of Life.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1940. Dr. Gesell says that a fair description of this book would be "a psychological outline of normal development from birth to the sixth year." It affords an indis-

pensable foundation for the observation of the behavior of elementary-school children. Required reading.

2. Reynolds, Martha May, *Children from Seed to Saplings.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939. "A book addressed to grownups who want to know more about children. . . . It is based on the premise that the best way to find out about children is to study real, live children and that, to do this, one has to know what to look for and how to interpret what one finds."

3. *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook*: Part One, *Child Development and the Curriculum.* National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1939. This volume explains in detail the close relationship between maturation and learning. Required reading.

4. Meek, Lois Hayden, *Your Child's Development and Guidance Told in Pictures.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1940. This is one of the easiest and best introductions to the subject for the principal who realizes that he lacks familiarity with the scientific study of behavior. Required reading.

5. Nimkoff, Meyer F., *The Child.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1934. A standard textbook. Required reading. Especially helpful chapters: V, "The Mental Development of the Child"; VI, "The Emotional Development of the Child"; VII, "The Social Development of the Child."

6. Bruce, William F., and Frank S. Freeman, *Development and Learning.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942. How teaching must depend on and fit into the mental, physical, and emotional growth of the child. Chapter 6, "The Mature-Ten-Year-Old," is particularly good.

7. The Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education has published three pamphlets which have been widely used by principals and teachers in summer educational workshops: *Child Development and the Psychology of Learning; Physiological Aspects of Child Growth and Development*; and *Aspects of Child Growth and Development* (all 1941). These may be procured from the Executive Secretary, Division on Child Development, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

8. Griffin, J. D. M., and others, *Mental Hygiene: A Manual for Teachers.* New York: American Book Company, 1940. Starting with the premise that "the child has many fundamental needs which must be satisfied if development is to proceed," the authors discuss these needs under three major headings: physiological or bodily needs; social needs; and self needs. Directed to those working in the classroom with children, this book explores the subject of mental hygiene in simple, non-technical language.

9. *Thirteenth Yearbook, Mental Hygiene.* Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1940. A very readable, practical book for busy school people.

10. Ruch, Floy L., *Psychology and Life.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1937. Part II, "The Background of Behavior," discusses in masterly fashion emotional development, the control of personal-social behavior, and dynamic factors in personality. Many photographic illustrations make a difficult subject attractive to the lay reader.

11. *Nineteenth Yearbook, Meeting Special Needs of the Child.* Department of Elementary School Principles. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1940. This is an excellent book for browsing. One of the best contributions is the article by C. H. McCloy, "The Child's Physical Development." In it he emphasizes the fact that each child follows a growth pattern of his own.

12. Four pamphlets issued by the Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, should be added to the principal's working library: *Nutrition Education in the School Program* (1941), a series of reprints from *School Life*: *Helping Elementary Children to Healthful Practices in School* (1941); *School Lunches and Education* (1941); and *Food for Thought* (1941).

13. It will pay the principal to maintain a card index of magazine articles found suggestive and helpful in the field of child growth and development. For example:

Reece, Ellen Steele, "An Interesting Age to Teach," *Progressive Education,* April, 1939. A study of eight- and nine-year-old children.

Mossman, Lois Coffey, "A Study of Pre-Adolescence," *Educational Method,* October, 1940. The procedure reported in studying children between the ages of eight and twelve years includes an outline to be checked by the teacher; anecdotal or observer-diary records; and a summary of changes in children as they are observed at the close of each school year.

Risden, Gladys, "Learning for Remembering," *Educational Method,* November, 1940. An account of the continuous observation of a child from two to six years of age to determine growth in quantitative thinking. Excellent.

Olson, W. C., and S. I. Davis, "The Adaptation of Instruction in Reading to the Growth of Children," *Educational Method,* November, 1940. Shows clearly how growth in reading ability is controlled by maturation factors and how dangerous it is to put pressure on a child to undertake a task beyond his powers.

Wilson, Clara O., "Evaluation of Child Growth: An Anecdotal

Record," *Educational Method*, January, 1941. The tabular record given by Wilson shows growth over a six weeks' period under thirteen headings. Classroom teachers need specific patterns such as this carefully itemized record.

Hagie, C. E., "What Is at the Bottom of Poor Work in the Schools?" *American School Board Journal*, March, 1938. The thesis given on page 41 of this article is as follows:

> American education has come to worship the thing that can be measured objectively right on the spot, and our whole organization of the educational process has been built up around the acceptance of that as a philosophy. The child has no time to think in school. Every available moment within the school's walls, he has "busy work" of one kind or another thrust upon him, which denies him the opportunity to reflect upon what he has learned.

Zyve, Claire, "Recording the Changing Life of the School," *Progressive Education*, December, 1936. Techniques for observation and appraisal which will prove helpful to the principal.

Todd, T. W., "Problems of Normal Development," *Progressive Education*, January, 1937. This excellent article indicates some of the growth factors in children which deserve special attention.

Zachry, Caroline B., "Later Childhood: Some Questions for Research," *Progressive Education*, November, 1938. The author points out that the study of adolescence has been made difficult by our lack of information regarding "the period just before." She lists lines of investigation of child growth on the eight- to twelve-year-old level which will be stimulating to the principal in studying his fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade children.

Randall, J. A., "The Anecdotal Behavior Journal," *Progressive Education*, January, 1936. On page 22 in this article the author defines "anecdote" as

> a record of some significant item of conduct; a record of some episode in the life of the student; a word-picture of the student in action; the teacher's best effort at taking a word snapshot at the moment of the incident; any narration of events in which the student takes such a part as will reveal something which may be significant about his personality.

Pratt, Caroline, "Recording Mental Health and Treatment," *Progressive Education*, January, 1936. Included in the article is a sample report on a child for an entire school year under eight specific headings.

CHAPTER SIX

◇

The Principal as Director of Learning

IN HIS CAPACITY as director of learning, the elementary principal has a twofold responsibility: first, to devise a long-term plan through which he will build up certain definite attitudes toward learning on the part of his teachers and will aid them to recognize the needs and interests of childhood; second, short-term planning to meet immediate needs in the learning program.

I. Long-Term Planning

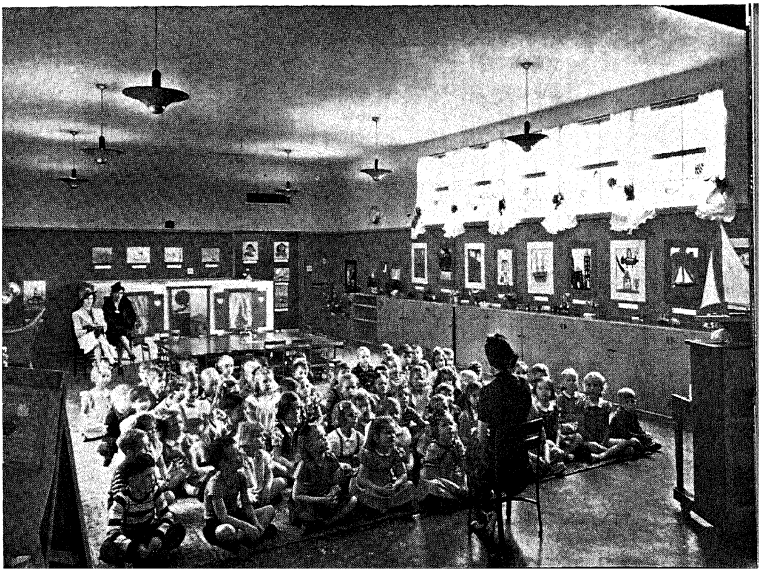
There are a few preparatory steps in a long-term planning program for the direction of learning which should be taken as soon as possible.

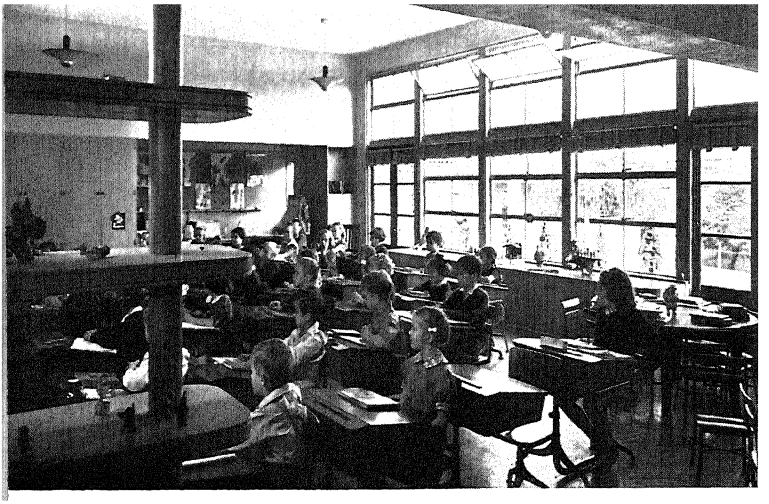
To assist teachers in setting up a classroom environment which contributes to good living, the principal may be able to replace fixed desks in primary grades by tables and chairs or other forms of movable equipment in order to secure free floor space. In the middle and upper grades he may have groups of four fixed desks set on movable strips of wood; this will permit rearrangement and will break up the uniformity of six straight rows of desks, seven seats to a row.[1]

[1] See Robert Hill Lane, *The Teacher in the Modern Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941), pp. 118-128.

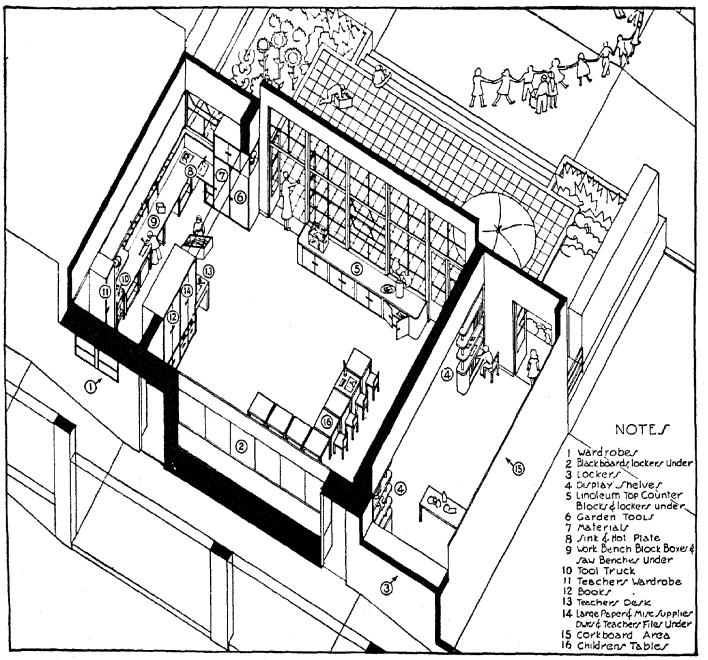


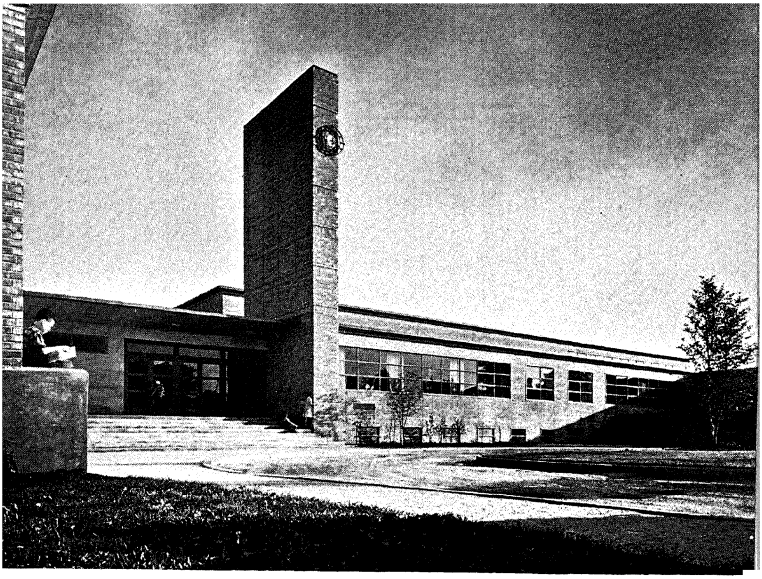
Plates 22 and 23. Kindergarten, Henry E. Huntington School, San Marino, California (Courtesy, Eaton)



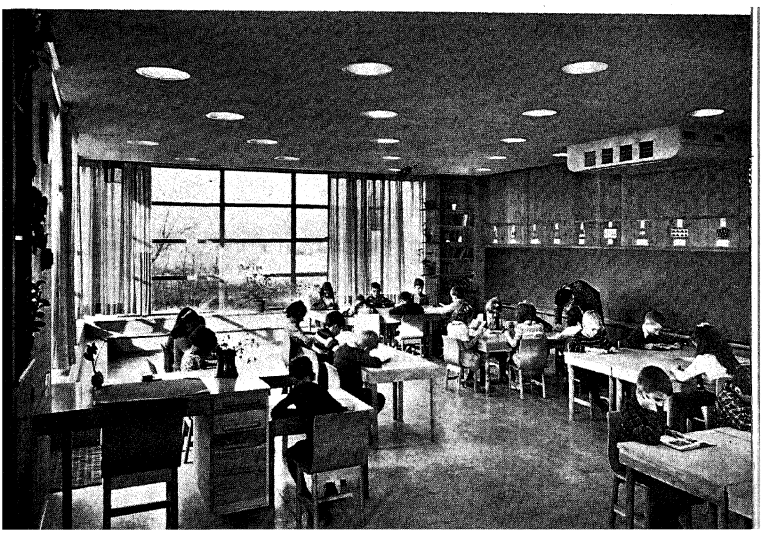


Plates 24 and 25. Classroom and Classroom Layout, Henry E. Huntington School, San Marino, California (Courtesy, Eaton)



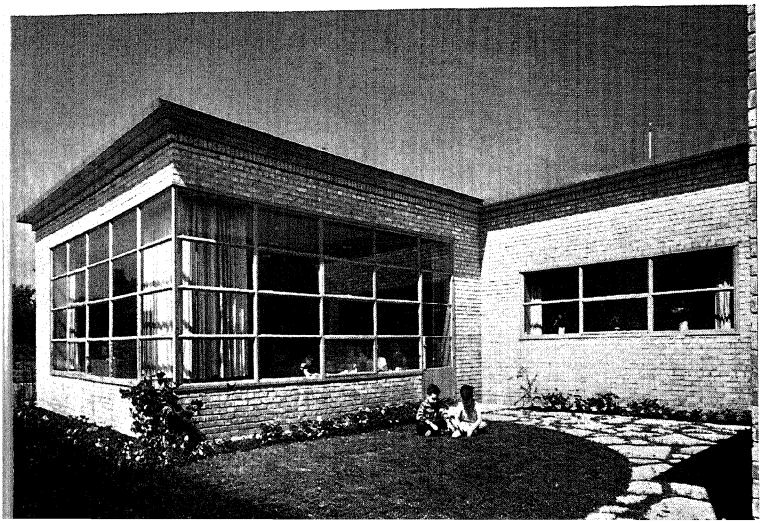


Plates 26 and 27. Front Elevation and Classroom, Crow Island School, Winnetka, Illinois (Courtesy, Hedrich-Blessing Studio)

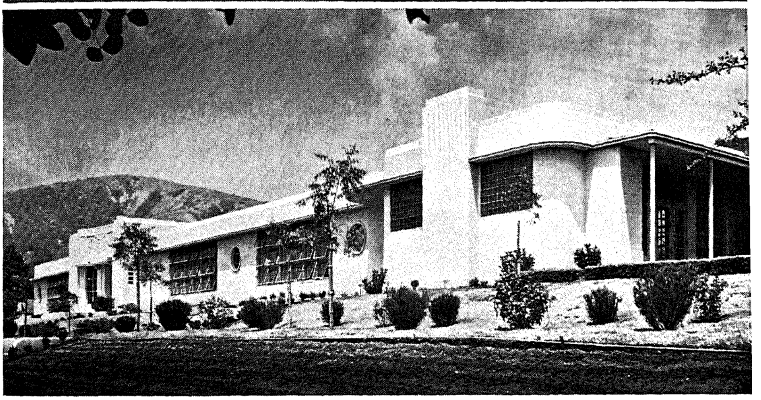


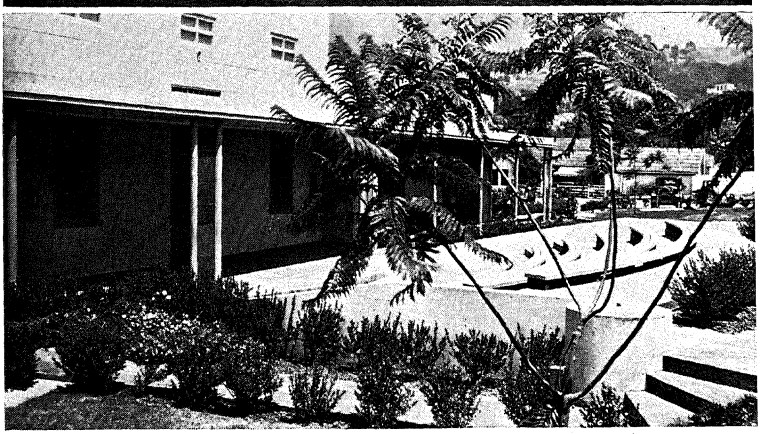


Plates 28 and 29. Work Alcove and Courtyard, Crow Island School, Winnetka, Illinois (Courtesy, Hedrich-Blessing Studio)

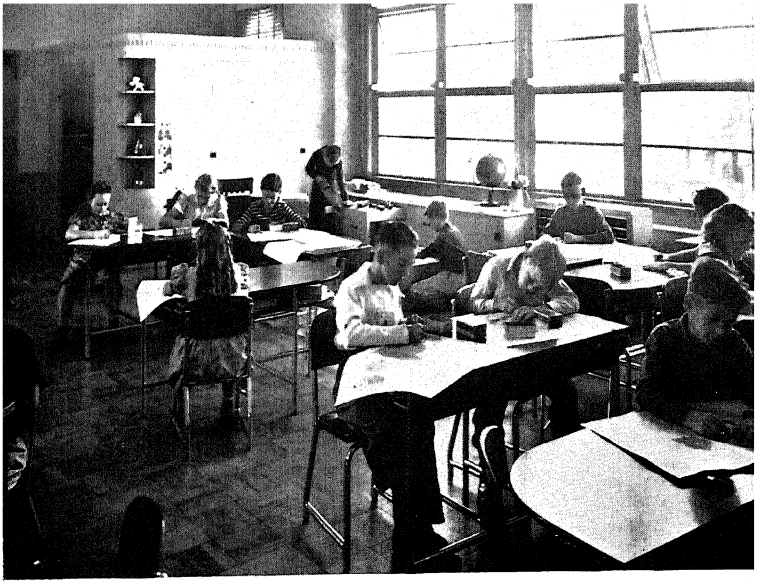






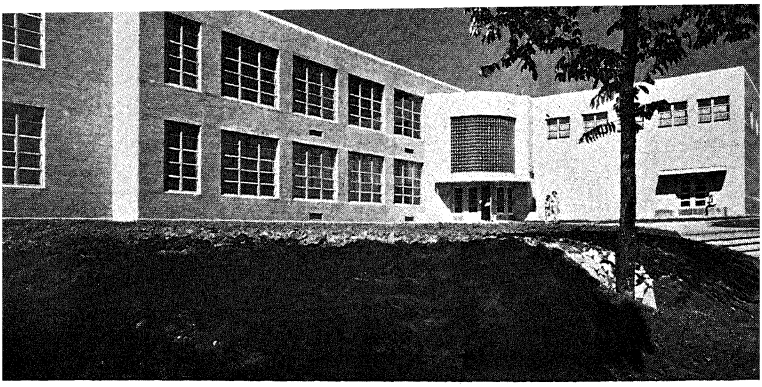


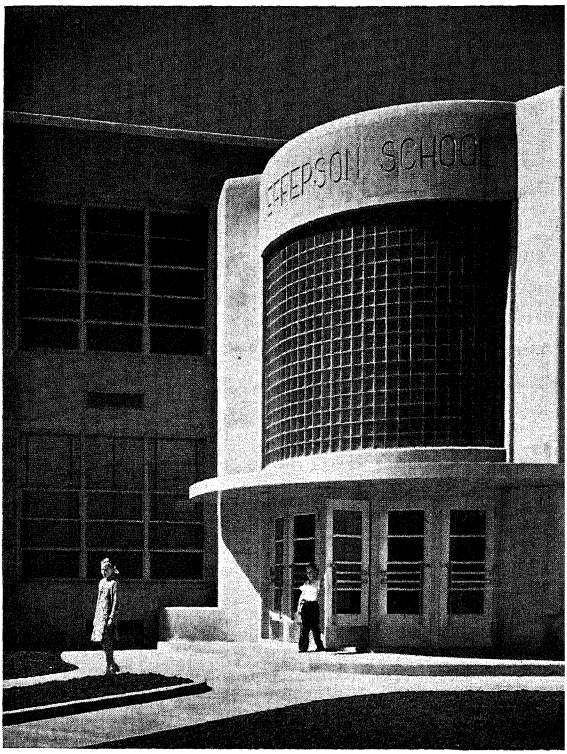
Plates 30, 31, 32. Front Elevation, Side Elevation, and Courtyard, Lou Henry Hoover School, Whittier, California



Plates 33 and 34. Classroom and Kindergarten, Lou Henry Hoover School, Whittier, California







Plates 35 and 36. Front Elevation and Entrance, Jefferson School, Ottawa, Illinois (Courtesy, Hedrich-Blessing Studio)



Plates 37 and 38. Auditorium and Kindergarten, Jefferson School, Ottawa, Illinois (Courtesy, Hedrich-Blessing Studio)



He can secure needed equipment – blocks in primary grades, toys, workbenches, clay tables, easels, science equipment, and all other forms of equipment which make effective work-centers possible. He can maintain an ample stock of supplies in his stock room and make these accessible to the teachers at all times. He can check at intervals supplemental books and visual aids to ensure adequate classroom libraries and reference materials for the classroom teacher. He can assemble and study at regular intervals the units of work, topics, and sequences of experiences offered by each teacher in the social-living and science fields to secure continuity and co-ordination and to avoid needless repetition. He can plan co-operatively with his teachers an effective system of reporting school progress to the home. He can evolve an experience curriculum for the school in co-operation with teachers, supervisors, and parents.

The following illustration of long-term planning is based on the assumption that all the persons concerned have a common philosophy of education, whose concept is that the major aim of the school is to secure the continuous growth of children through the provision of desirable experiences in a controlled environment. There are two methods of developing this philosophy with a group of teachers. *First*, to build up a common agreement on educational principles and practices through directed reading, visiting, and conference. *Second*, to "wade right in" and develop philosophy concurrently with practice. For example, "Let us rearrange the fixed desks in our classrooms by putting them on runners and grouping them in such fashion as to allow each child a chance to sit with the other nine or ten children in his group in a section of the room which is to belong exclusively to them. Now, why do we do this?" Out of the ensuing discussion certain generalizations appear: "We wish to break up the formality of the classroom. We wish to secure needed floor space. We wish each child to identify himself with a small group of his own choice, etc."

The principal need not regard this as an "either – or" situa-

tion. Probably the correct solution is to combine theory and practice in small doses at a time.

We may assume that the following nine-point program is set up as the foundation of a three-year plan for the gradual transformation of a somewhat formal, traditional school into a modern school, and that the principal will have thought through the implications of each step thoroughly before beginning his campaign. In a school with an exceptionally well-trained and able faculty he may be able to take his teachers fully into his confidence from the beginning. In other situations, he may need to keep his master plan under cover and proceed very slowly a step at a time, so that his teachers may not become confused or discouraged. Here is the principal's major strategy:

1. Divide the school into Lower School and Upper School so as to focus attention on two levels of child growth, *early childhood* and *later childhood* (pre-adolescence).
2. Study all cases of improper placement of children in classes as a first step toward recognition of social maturity as a basis for school organization.
3. Help each teacher to set up a classroom environment which will provide for the children rich experiences in good living.
4. Study the experiences provided by the teachers to determine if they lead to desirable goals and measurable learnings.
5. Organize the Lower School completely on the basis of social maturity.
6. Adopt a reading-readiness program in the Lower School.
7. Develop a good daily program in each classroom.
8. Organize the Upper School on the basis of social maturity.
9. Solicit the co-operation of the parents in the re-organization of the school.

It should be pointed out that the exact order of the steps given above is not significant. It may prove expedient, for example, to begin with steps 3 and 4.

First year: first semester

1. Divide your kindergarten-through-sixth-grade school into a *Lower School* (kindergarten through the low third grade) and an *Upper School* (high third grade through the sixth grade).

Why should you do this? First of all, you want to break down those artificial barriers called grades, which so hopelessly compartmentalize the average elementary school. You want teachers to think in long blocks of child experience, of the continuous growth of children from the five-year-old level through the eight-year-old level; from the eight-year-old level through the twelve-year-old level. In your teachers' meetings gather all the teachers of the Lower School (the teachers of the little children) into one group to discuss common problems. Gather all the teachers of the Upper School (the teachers of the older children) into a group for the discussion of their particular problems. In a very large school you may want to think of your third and fourth grades as your Middle School and hold meetings and conferences with their teachers as a functional group. Do your best to discourage discussion in terms of grades. Try to substitute for "I am a B-1 teacher" the idea "I am a teacher of six- and seven-year-old children."

2. For this first semester, allow the teachers in the Upper School to go on in their accustomed fashion and concentrate your campaign on the teachers in the Lower School because, in general, teachers of little children are more flexible in their thinking and more receptive to new ideas than their colleagues who teach older children. Make it your major job this semester to develop with your primary teachers a sound philosophy of education. Feed your own philosophy to them in very small doses. Remember that teachers' assimilative processes have limits.

First year: second semester

1. Leave the teachers in the Upper School to follow their usual routine, except for trying to help them to see children rather than grades, subject matter, or units of work. Dis-

courage the idea "I am the Eskimo teacher," or "I am the Indian teacher," or "I am the medieval-castle-and-days-of-chivalry teacher."

2. As you move through the Lower School watch out for the "sore thumbs" among the children — those unfortunate, unhappy children who are not accepted by the social group in which they find themselves. If a child is very immature or very sophisticated, take him out quietly and discover some place for him where the climate is more congenial. Set as your goal the formation in every classroom of a social group whose prime characteristic is that it is a group of children who can live, work, and play together happily and successfully. Do not make this readjustment noisily; do not advertise the fact too much. After a while the primary teachers will sense the improvement; then is the time (and not before) to let them in on the secret of what you have been doing.

3. In visiting your Lower School, study carefully the kind of environment which each teacher has provided for the children in her classroom. Is it an environment which makes maximum growth in the right direction possible? Is the classroom a place where democratic living is going on? Is the classroom a barn or an art gallery, or is it a workshop where children are meeting problems at their respective age levels with some degree of success? [2]

Second year: first semester

1. Continue to let the teachers in your Upper School jog along. By this time they will begin to sense that something new is happening in the Lower School. Some of them will ask you point-blank what you are doing. Don't be mysterious, but don't be too expansive. A healthy curiosity is a sign of grace.

2. As you examined the rooms in the Lower School for

[2] A newspaper in a large western city under date of September 10, 1940, began an article on the opening of the public schools under the headline "The Classrooms Leer at the Children." Be sure that your classrooms do not "leer."

environment in the previous semester, examine them in this semester for experiences. What types of experiences are going on in these primary rooms? Are they desirable? Do they lead to rapid and effective growth? Has the teacher provided many and varied experiences which make good learning possible? Discuss these matters with your primary teachers. Is there a constant flow of life from one classroom to another, or does your kindergartener, for example, seal herself and her children hermetically in the kindergarten from 9 A.M. to 3 P.M.? Straighten out the thinking of these primary teachers as to "units of work" and "activities" and let it be understood that good living may be going on for weeks at a time without the presence of a formal unit of work.

3. Take your primary teachers into your confidence as to what you did last semester in organizing your school on the basis of social maturity. Let it be understood that from now on your organization will continue to be made on this basis. Then go quietly around and take all the signs off the doors which say "Miss Brown, Kindergarten" and "Miss Jones, A 2," and rechristen your primary classrooms Group One, Group Two, and Group Three, etc., to the end that you may teach children rather than grades and that you may cease identifying "The Farm" with B 1 or "The Community" with A 2.

Second year: second semester

You have come a long way, haven't you? Now your troubles begin, but take your courage in both hands.

1. Call your Upper School teachers together and tell them frankly what has happened in the Lower School and how you brought it about and why. Advertise the fine things the primary teachers are doing and soft-pedal your own share in the process. Begin to feed your philosophy to these upper-grade teachers a little at a time and help them to formulate their own philosophy. You will find them very durable in their ideas and prejudices. Many of them will honestly believe that you are ruining your school, but be patient.

2. Lead your Lower School teachers to agree that no child

shall be taught reading until he is ready to learn to read, and that no child shall be denied the right to read if he

(*a*) has a wealth of experience behind him
(*b*) is strong and well
(*c*) has good eyesight and good hearing
(*d*) is emotionally stable
(*e*) has a good speaking vocabulary
(*f*) can speak in sentences
(*g*) is socially adjusted
(*h*) is reasonably intelligent
(*i*) really wants to read.

These are the accepted prerequisites to reading. Beware of the teacher who mistakes her readiness to teach for the child's readiness to learn.

3. Emphasize with both Lower School and Upper School teachers that a good daily program will help the teacher to control the types of experiences which are valuable for children. In general, the following "areas" or "fields" are desirable sources:

The Fundamental Physical Skills
The Fundamental Intellectual Skills
The Fundamental Social Skills
Aesthetics
The Practical Arts

4. Develop experience programs in the Upper School as you did in the Lower School, and begin quietly the procedure of grouping on the basis of social maturity in the Upper School. You may meet with opposition, but go slowly and be very, very patient. Give these Upper School teachers time to grow.

Third year: first semester

1. By this time your Lower School should have become a joy to the children, to the teachers, and to you. Now is the time to bring the parents into the picture. Invite them to visit the school and help educate them to these new points of view. Ask your primary teachers to begin writing out the experiences which they have found most helpful in ensuring the

continuous growth of children. Get these written accounts together, work them over with your Lower School teachers, and adopt the final result as a tentative curriculum for the Lower School with the understanding that the curriculum is never finished but is always in the making. It is assumed that your curriculum will fit itself into the general curricular plan under which your school system operates.

2. Take the grade cards off the doors in the Upper School and adopt the group designation in place of grades.

3. Investigate the environmental and experimental factors in the Upper School and guide the teachers toward the goals you have reached in the Lower School.

Third year: second semester

1. Have the teachers in the Upper School begin recording experiences and help them to make a tentative curriculum for the Upper School.

2. Abolish the terms Lower School and Upper School, for now you will have no further need for the distinction. Indeed, your job from now on is to unify your entire school as completely as possible.

3. Abolish report cards and replace them by friendly notes to the parents.

The steps outlined represent a practical approach by the progressive principal to the improvement of learning activities in the school, but unless the principal is a real person, he will not be able to secure results. The truly human principal has the happy faculty of surrounding himself with people as genial, wholesome, and integrated as himself, and such a company does not need to worry about "creative supervision" or "democratic co-operation," because those qualities will grow naturally out of a situation where good living is continuous. Living in a school manned by real persons will always be a joyous adventure. One will grow old in such a school with increasing joy and happiness as the years go by.

II. Grouping and Promotion

The principal cannot go very far toward the realization of the goal expressed in the preceding paragraphs without settling two vexing problems in the field of school administration and management. These have been implied in all that has been said, but will bear expansion.

1. *How shall pupils be classified in my school?*

In a very illuminating chapter on "Classification of Pupils," Otto [3] arrives at this conclusion:

> In view of the individual differences in children and the emphasis being placed upon the socializing phases of education, it is recommended here that children be classified according to social maturity. Pupils would thus be assigned to classrooms in numbers of thirty or forty or more, not on the basis of conventional teachers' marks or mental or achievement measures, but on the basis of social maturity. By social maturity is meant the all-round social development of the individual. It will include a consideration of such indices of maturity of general behavior as are manifested by the pupils' choices of types of games and play interests, books and movies, companions, and ability to direct their conduct according to accepted modes; in general, it is a measure of the whole social personality of the individual.

Another helpful definition of social maturity is given by Pechstein and Munn [4] in an article on "The Measurement of Social Maturity in Children":

> Social maturity is that growth and development of the individual, conditioned by both internal and external factors, which enables him to adjust himself successfully to his fellowmen and to adapt his fellow-men to himself.

A third analysis of social grouping is given by Leon Mones in his article "We Have Abandoned Homogeneous Grouping"

[3] H. J. Otto, *Elementary School Organization and Administration*, (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1934), p. 193.
[4] *Elementary School Journal*, October, 1939, p. 113.

in *Clearing House*, October, 1940, in which he develops eight criteria for determining a social group:

> (*a*) A class is a social group in which each pupil may achieve his highest possible social status.
>
> (*b*) A class is a group in which the democratic processes leading to the emergence of democratic leadership may go on.
>
> (*c*) A class is a social group in which the democratic processes of mutual stimulation, accommodation, rivalry, interaction, imitation, acceptance, etc., may go on so that pupils may achieve the emotional kinetics of democratic life.
>
> (*d*) A class is a social group in which intelligence is not a measure for a plateau of achievement but is instead a process of social interaction. In other words, the intelligence of a class is to be exerted as class energy and is to function among pupils as a process of give-and-take.
>
> (*e*) Pupils are to be removed or placed within classes not on the basis of intelligence measurements but on the basis of social returns to the pupil and to the class.
>
> (*f*) In classes socially grouped, brilliant pupils may achieve their highest performance and their best development by being given the opportunity to help those not so gifted.
>
> (*g*) Backward and retarded pupils in a class socially grouped may be challenged to better adjustment and performance than if put into classes with pupils on their own level of mentality.
>
> (*h*) Classes socially grouped will be subject to change in pupil personnel whenever more effective social performance can be achieved through changes.

Here, then, we have a very definite trend in modern education which may be stated simply as the process of classifying and grouping children so that each child may live with children like-minded with himself, with whom he can work and play happily and successfully.

2. *What shall be the policy on the promotion of pupils in my school?*

Obviously, the answer to this question depends upon the kind of classification of pupils under which the school operates. If the principal is in a position to answer this question for his school as he thinks best, he has several alternatives:

(*a*) Assign very definite bodies of subject matter to each year or half-year in the school organization (B 1, A 3, B 5, etc.), require definite outcomes in pupil achievement in the way of knowledges, habits, skills, and attitudes together with very specific approved behavior patterns, and require each child to meet these standards before he is promoted to the next year or half-year. If he fails to meet these standards, the pupil "fails," is "non-promoted" and appears on the school's retardation report. In a surprisingly large number of schools this is the accepted policy governing promotions. A summary of an article by Miss Frances Morehouse, which appears elsewhere in this book,[5] embodies some of the arguments in favor of such a policy, and it must be admitted that Miss Morehouse states a point of view which is worthy of serious thought. The average principal approves of this policy. He can say with perfect truth to a prospective patron, "You will like our school because we have such high standards of work. Whenever a child comes to us from another school, we always *demote* him a half year!" Spartan parents like this policy. The very bright children like this policy. The slow-learning, methodical, plodding children do not like it, nor do teachers or parents like it who are concerned with the needs, interests, growth, and development of boys and girls.

(*b*) Promote every child regardless of standards. Whenever promotion time rolls around, give no marks on report cards lower than *satisfactory*. Nearly everybody likes this policy except the very bright children who want to "show off" and those teachers who like to use report cards and promotion as threats over the heads of the children. ("You had better behave, John Jones, or you won't get promoted.") A few teachers who believe in the virtues of hard work and effort and courage and persistence and who themselves came up "the hard way" won't like it either. And the teachers in the neighboring junior high school will loathe it, throw up their hands, and cry, "What's the world coming to?"

(*c*) The principal can use a little common sense and decide

[5] See page 183.

each case upon its own merits. In general, it is very doubtful that "keeping a child back" *solves* many problems. It is quite certain, in many cases, to *make* some problems – to start the habit of failure and to keep it alive all through the child's elementary-school life. Every child needs to work up to his ability and to be worked up to his ability by the teacher if he is ever to have a character durable enough to bear the strains and stresses of life, but if he has an intelligence quotient of 84, he mustn't be worked up to the level of his neighbor who has an I.Q. of 110. (Of course, this is impossible anyway, but some teachers and more parents never learn!) "All I can" is a fine slogan to hold before the children, and they should be helped to live up to it.

Occasionally a child does profit by being kept back. When children enter the first grade at five years and nine months, as many do, they are not very apt to have accomplished much in reading at the end of a semester when they are six years and two months old. If they are very babyish and immature and if a group of such children have a kind, loving, and understanding teacher, it may be best for them to stay with her for a second semester, even though they appear as "not promoted" on the register. If a large boy in the middle grades has met all the problems of living in the daily life of the school and because of lack of intestinal fortitude has failed miserably on each, it may save his soul to be made to realize the cause of failure, go back, pick up the pieces, and try again. The best rule for promotion is no rule at all except "What is best for this boy or that girl?"

III. Short-Term Planning

From time to time the principal will meet immediate needs in the direction of learning by various supervisory devices. A few of these are suggested below.

1. *The group conference*

In a school of ten or more teachers, it will be found de-

sirable to bring teachers together in systematic fashion for discussion of problems of learning on various age levels. A convenient division is to organize one group around the specific growth problems of five-, six-, and seven-year-old children; a second group around problems of eight- and nine-year-old children; a third, around problems of the ten-, eleven-, and twelve-year-olds. To the teacher enamored of grades, this procedure shifts the center of gravity from grades to children and helps the teacher to see that school practice must be adapted to children's needs and not children to school practice. The specific problems to be raised in each conference will easily arise out of the day's work, but if the teachers find it difficult either to discover problems or to express them adequately, the principal needs to know typical problems likely to be present in all schools, whether his teachers recognize them or not.

The following list of problems may help to "prime the pump" in the opening conferences of primary teachers until they begin to sense their own immediate problems:

What is a good working program for five-, six-, and seven-year-old children?

What are the characteristics of normal physical development at the five-, six-, and seven-year-old level?

Does the daily program meet the needs of the children in the classroom?

Does the daily program preserve a just balance between work and rest?

What constitutes an adequate rest program for your children?

How can the teacher care best for individual differences in maturation and development?

What are the major factors constituting reading readiness?

What shall the teacher do with a group not ready for reading when the majority of her children are on a reading program?

What techniques are useful to the Lower School teacher in systematically observing children?

In what ways may the teacher enrich the classroom environment?

What work centers are most useful in the Lower School and how may they be most effectively used?

What types of child experience are developing out of the day's work, and how may they be evaluated?

What types of art experiences are best for little children? Music experiences? Physical education experiences? How may these be evaluated?

What are effective ways of interesting parents in children's art experiences in school?

What are the major reasons for including block play in the program of the Lower School?

What is the relationship between block play and representative construction in wood?

What are the purposes of evaluation in block play and construction with wood? Is there danger in over-evaluation?

How may the teacher help the transition from chart reading (experience reading) to pre-primer and primer?

What values lie in trips and excursions for small children? How may the excursion be managed to secure maximum results for the children?

Granted that good experiences are going on in the classrooms, how may we ensure maximum learning from each experience?

The principal needs to be constantly on the alert to see that each conference arrives somewhere and that teachers leave the conference with a clear-cut idea of some one thing well done. For example, in answering the problem "What are the values of block play?" we would wish teachers to have as definite an answer as is contained in the following statement: [6]

I have tried to think through seven definite values in block play or block building with young children. *First of all,* not most important but very vital, block play gives the child a chance to move about, to get physical exercise and relaxation. Some might think this not a sound essential, but as teachers of young children, we know it is necessary for us to train children's emotional and nervous systems to adjust to this speed age that is ahead of them. We can ruin nervous systems or make them. It is important and necessary that a child should feel free to move about, as it is a protection from

[6] The author is indebted to Miss Ruth Angelo, Principal, Hancock Park School, Los Angeles, for this excellent analysis.

fatigue. The kind of fatigue we must work against is that which comes when the child is not free to change his position. The child does not know he is resting when he moves about, but he is. It is a matter of expending energy and then rebuilding it, that goes on and on.

The *second value* of block building for young children is that it is one of the very best media in which a child may practice self-control and self-direction. Self-control is not enough; self-direction must accompany it. It is a chance to share material. When a child is working with his group on the floor, working around the other children when he builds and working around their building, and still constructing something that is satisfactory to himself, it is the beginning of adjustment for that child. The child who sits still and does not annoy the one who does something of value is the one who is least adjusted of any.

The *third point*: block play affords one of the best opportunities for problematic thinking. There are no patterns for the building, no directions for the play, and everything the child does and says must depend upon his understanding of his world and how it functions, and that is what we are working for with young children.

The *fourth point*: block play is one of the best opportunities during the whole school day for language, by reason of the need for speech. The young child can shrug his shoulders, which is one form of language when he first goes to school, or he can remain silent in the language period when the teacher talks to him, but in block play he must talk to make what he wishes to happen, so there is definitely a need for speaking.

The *fifth point* to be considered: block building and block play provide opportunities for the creative and constructive urge of the child, and not only that, but they give him at the same time an opportunity to practice art, or for art principles to function. In block play, there is balance in the child's building, there is design, there is repetition, and certainly there is form. Form is one of the last things that comes to the young child's building; design and balance are the first signs to appear, and it is important to work on that.

The *sixth point* is that blocks are probably the simplest materials with which the child can interpret his world and environment. You and I were born in this world when it was more simple. We have had an opportunity to grow up with airplanes, boats, and the hubbub and bustle of living. We

know where these things are going; but the young child is born in the midst of this confusion, which we must help him to interpret. Through block building, the child is able to interpret and understand the world about him.

And *last of all*, block building affords the teacher, probably, her best opportunity to study her children, not as a group but as individual personalities, for she sees them actively practice behavior and has the opportunity to observe their emotional behavior. She can tell what attitudes are being built and those that need to be built.

The principal will be wise to make use of supervisors in these conferences. The primary supervisor should be able to bring a wealth of experience to each meeting and should give practical help on the everyday problems of teaching that arise during the discussion. Special supervisors will indicate objectives, values, and techniques of the special subjects they represent. A similar use of supervisory service should be made in conferences with middle- and upper-grade teachers. Surely, this utilization of the supervisors is far more effective and infinitely more welcome to the teacher than a supervisory classroom visit of the inspectorial type.

While the principal will guide the conference throughout, it will add to the faculty morale to place each conference under a teacher chairman or a small teacher-committee. Let the guidance of the principal be subtle, suggestive, and indirect rather than autocratic.

2. *The professional faculty meeting*

In the first place, let it be said bluntly that the principal should never hold a faculty meeting merely for the sake of holding a faculty meeting. In the second place, let it be said that the faculty meeting is not an occasion for reading bulletins. These two procedures are probably at the bottom of most complaints by teachers of the inadequacy of faculty meetings. Many principals have acquired the habit of having faculty meetings every Tuesday (or Wednesday, or Thursday) and continue the practice regardless of need. Many principals feel that the only way in which teachers can be

held responsible for materials contained in bulletins is to read the bulletins to the teachers. Both practices are unforgivable and unnecessary in the modern school. The routine instructions necessary in every school may be profitably reduced to bulletin form, and the simple device of having each teacher sign a check list affirming that she has read the bulletin, plus a little salutary discipline for those who sign and do not read, will dispose of routine matters quickly and effectively.

The subjects for discussion at a general faculty meeting (as opposed to the group conference) will arise out of daily needs. Probably the making of the curriculum, problems of social grouping, growth problems of children, methods of observing child behavior, and discussions of specific subject-matter fields, will be popular topics with the teachers. It is essential that the principal should prepare himself in advance of the meeting and have his material well in hand.

One topic that provides much material for profitable discussion in a faculty meeting and which leads directly to constructive effort on the part of teachers, principal, children, and parents is the meaning of the term "the Good Life," or to put the same concept into question form, "What constitutes good living in the modern elementary classroom?" We are fond of advising teachers to have good living going on when we come around, but if the teachers should demand of us, "Well, *all right!* but how to get it?" we should have to think fast. By friendly discussion, it should be possible to reach an agreement both on what constitutes social living and on effective ways and means of securing it.

3. *Directed visiting by the teacher*

Whenever a new enterprise is begun in school, such as the initiation of chart reading in a primary grade or organizing a science center in an upper grade, the teacher feels the need of acquiring new ideas and developing new techniques. Many teachers find that visiting is the most helpful form of guidance, but it often fails to reach its goal because it is badly planned

in design and haphazard in execution. The principal will be well advised

- to find out which teachers need help;
- to find out from supervisors and fellow principals where help is available;
- to make a definite visiting schedule which will result in maximum assistance to the teacher with minimum disturbance to his school.

Presumably substitutes are not available to fill the place of the teacher visiting another school and her class will need to be cared for. By turning this problem over to a committee of teachers, the principal accomplishes two things: he gets action, and he secures the co-operation of his faculty. Arbitrary arrangements rarely meet with much approval from the teacher who must take additional children into her class on five minutes' notice or on no notice at all.

The principal has a burden of responsibility to the teacher who goes visiting. He must have her class cared for as suggested above, but he needs to do considerably more. He must be sure that Miss Jones in the neighboring school is the right person for his Miss Smith to visit. He assures himself that Miss Jones is actually using the desired techniques successfully, that she is willing to be visited, and that she can see Miss Smith at a stated hour. He will confer with Miss Smith in advance to be sure that she knows exactly what she is looking for, and on her return he will help her to evaluate what she has seen in terms of its applicability to her own classroom situation.

It may be desirable to have the supervisor concerned conduct Miss Smith on her visit. Occasionally the principal himself should go with the visiting teacher so that he may learn the needed technique at first hand. Best of all, he may ask permission to accompany both supervisor and teacher, in this way obtaining the expert opinion and advice of the supervisor as well as direct knowledge of the situation observed. Nothing is more discouraging to the teacher anxious to improve herself than to sense that the principal is not interested in her

efforts and is unwilling to expend the time and effort to become a partner in the enterprise.

When a problem such as chart reading becomes general, so that many teachers are affected, it is economy for the supervisor to conduct a group of several teachers to observe the needed technique. The principal's responsibility here is to keep closely in touch with the supervisor so that he may know well in advance of her scheduled group visits.

4. *Participation*

Valuable as directed observation is, it has one weakness – the teacher is necessarily passive. One of the best ways to learn is by doing, and here the "work-shop" idea has merit. In all phases of the graphic and plastic arts, for example, the teacher who joins a class composed of other teachers intent on learning under the direction of the supervisor how to weave or make block prints is using the most practical short cut toward self-improvement. The responsibilities of the principal here are to bring the workshop to the attention of the faculty, to encourage the teacher who needs help to attend, and to become a member himself of a work-shop group. Teachers like to see their principal willing to learn on the same level and at the same tasks as themselves. Educational workshops have become increasingly popular during the past five years, due in part, at least, to the emphasis laid upon workshop techniques by the Progressive Education Association. There are two basic concepts in the workshop idea: the organizing of materials around a central idea which is later broken down into specific applications, and the active participation of members of the workshop in all of its activities. Or, to put it in another way, attendants at a well-organized workshop learn by doing. Under the direction of skilled craftsmen, students learn how to model in clay, how to conduct a school orchestra, how to develop curriculum materials. When the workshop closes, the people who have attended it take home with them something specific which can be profitably and effectively used in their respective classrooms.

While most workshops are operated by outside agencies – a department of education in a university or college, a professional organization, a city or county or state superintendent of schools – the principal may find it possible to organize a simple workshop for the benefit of his teachers. The procedure is twofold: to develop general ideas and concepts through lectures and conferences; to apply these ideas and concepts to specific goals through group participation. The following outline used with a group of elementary-school principals in the summer of 1943 may prove suggestive as a source of ideas in developing a Language Arts Workshop Program.

A Program in the Language Arts

1. Secure a copy of *An Experience Curriculum in English*,[7] discuss it with your teachers, and show how it has
 (*a*) revolutionized the teaching of the language arts in elementary schools and
 (*b*) revolutionized the language textbook.
2. Lay the basic foundation stones in building a modern language arts program:
 (*a*) Language is the inevitable accompaniment (concomitant) of all human social action.
 (*b*) Language springs out of experience.
 (*c*) Experience begets language; the richer the experience, the richer the language arising from it.
 (*d*) Language is always changing because experience is always changing.
 (*e*) What is "right" or "correct" in language depends upon human agreement and constant use, not upon authority. Authority simply records mass human action.
3. Define the term "Language Arts" for your teachers as:
 (*a*) Oral communication.
 (*b*) Written communication in general.
 (*c*) Written communication through reading.
 (*d*) Usage as an accompaniment of (*a*), (*b*), and (*c*).
 (*e*) Creative expression.
 (*f*) Literature.

[7] By W. W. Hatfield and others (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1935).

4. Help your teachers to analyze what goes on under the term "oral communication." Begin with casual, informal conversation as carried on by the children in the schoolroom and in the yard. Show the teacher how to observe conversation – rather, how to listen to conversation. She should look for the language level habitually used by each child. It will be one of the six American languages spoken in our country: illiterate, homely, informal, formal, literary, or scientific. Very probably it will be one of the first three. Let the teacher build her language-arts program on what she finds by constructive, positive help, appealing to the self-interest of each child.
 (*a*) Collect common group errors in language and go after them in practice and drill periods. Imitation is a powerful factor in language – let the teacher look to her own speech.
 (*b*) Observe the common errors of children who habitually speak a language other than English and devise plans to eliminate their errors in speech. Make the children feel that it is "smart" to speak "good American." Help them to speak slowly and enunciate clearly. Be sure the ready speaker from a foreign home really knows the meaning of the words he uses.
 (*c*) Let the teacher listen to voices. We Americans have four common faults:
 our voices are pitched too high
 we speak too rapidly
 we use too much power
 we speak in a monotone.

 Ask your teachers to study their own voices. Help teachers and children to realize that a voice is a musical instrument and that how to handle it has to be learned as in the case of any other musical instrument.

 Help children to see that a sweet, well-managed musical voice is an asset.
 (*d*) Ask teachers to watch out for final consonants and giving each syllable of a word its value or quantity – "gov-ern-ment."
 (*e*) Enrich experiences in the classroom so that conversation may be enriched.
 (*f*) Help the children to use in their conversation those words recently created by necessity and now in constant use. The present war has given us many new words.

(*g*) A verse choir (choral verse) is a powerful device for improving voice quality.

(*h*) Examine good, modern language textbooks for suggestions on developing good conversation.

5. In developing a good program in teaching written communication, it will be found helpful to devise a short unit of the type of *How Man Has Made Records* in order to build an interest in language, an awareness of its possibilities, and a firm grasp of the fact that language is constantly changing as new experiences develop new language needs.
6. Develop with your teachers a complete course of study in literature for all classes from the kindergarten through the sixth grade, employing Mother Goose rhymes, folk tales, fairy tales, Greek myths, hero tales, and good poetry. Equip the school with a good anthology as a time and labor saver for the busy teacher.
7. Encourage teachers as tactfully as possible to widen their own knowledge of literature.
8. Begin your year's work in reading by discussing the *Reading Pattern* [8] which will be followed in your school during 1943-1944. It will be helpful to mimeograph the sheet so that each teacher may have a copy.
9. Make clear to the children in the middle and upper grades that not all reading is done on the *printed* word. Signals, signs, pictures, and other visual approaches afford rich materials in non-verbal reading.
10. You will need to work hard in convincing teachers that there are numerous language implications in a reading program. Is the ordinary daily, habitual language used by the child in conversation close to, or miles apart, from the reading materials with which he has to work? If the gap between is very large, how shall it be closed up?
11. Use a modern language text to develop an appreciation of good conversation. Build personal vocabularies from interesting words found in the text and so enrich conversation. Examine good sentences found in the text and determine why they are good. Note how interest and suspense are developed in writing narratives. Note how unity is developed in a good paragraph. (You will find some basic principles of written composition in Robert Hill Lane, *The Teacher in the Modern Elementary School,* pp. 242-247).[9]

[8] See pages 194-196. [9] Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940.

12. Have an understanding with your teachers about oral reports. Insist on fewer and better-prepared reports based on written scripts previously approved by the teacher. Do not tolerate the accepted practice of allowing children to read factual material, memorize it, and reproduce it as their own. A period of ingestion and digestion is indicated.
13. Let the glossaries found at the end of most modern school reading texts serve as an introduction to the use of the dictionary. Make clear to children both the great possibilities and the great limitations of the dictionary. Make clear the tremendous difference between a word standing by itself in a dictionary and the same word brought to life and illuminated in context. The common injunction, "Look up the word in your dictionary," is often a futile and misleading gesture to a child.
14. Explore with your primary teachers the great language possibilities of block play and dramatic play. Help your teachers to realize the basic differences between dramatic play and dramatization.
15. Examine a good modern language text for technics in developing dramatization and radio programs.
16. The school newspaper or magazine could be a helpful incentive to create expression, but often it is poorly planned and imperfectly executed. Many teachers seem to lack what *Time* magazine calls the *newsworthy* instinct. The wall newspaper so common in Russian schools and factories is an indispensable introduction to the subject, but one almost never seen in our classrooms.
17. Acceptance of the concept of the *Lower School* as a continuous, organic unit of child growth and development from the four-year-old level to the eight-year-old level, forces both the kindergarten teacher and the "little B 1" teacher into accepting responsibility for their share in the language and reading program. Among its many other tasks, the elementary school needs to develop technics of handling the "readiness reader" which is slowly coming into use in our more progressive schools.

5. *Observation of the teacher*

The time-honored custom of observation of the classroom teacher by her principal seems to be greatly modified by the philosophy of education prevalent in the modern school. The score card, the check list, the little red notebook are seldom

seen in action in schools where the principal looks upon supervision as a co-operative enterprise in which he is merely one member of a professional group. Where many school systems still require principals to rate teachers, the more progressive systems have discontinued the practice except in the cases of substitute teachers and of permanent teachers whose work is unsatisfactory.

In spite of these changes, it is well for the principal to have a very definite idea as to the success of each teacher in his building and to be able to back his judgment by specific statements if need be. How shall he secure the needed information, since we have taken his little red book and his check list away from him?

It is the judgment of the author, based on long experience, that there are three good ways to learn about the teacher aside from the casual contacts made in the day's work:

> One can learn a great deal by studying her classroom
> One can learn more by studying the children
> One can learn most by working side by side with the teacher.

Go into the classroom some morning before the teacher and children arrive and look around you. Ask yourself these questions: Is the room attractive? Is it a homelike place likely to interest children? Are there work-centers and do they appear equipped for work, or are they merely for show? Has the teacher made the best use of her classroom furniture? If she has desks, has she broken the long, straight rows into groups to provide for more intimacy among the children? Is the room well equipped with supplementary books, maps, charts, pictures, and other visual aids? Is the science table stocked with living, growing things, or is it merely static and accumulating dust? Is the room drowned in materials, or has the teacher shown good judgment in her selection of materials? Has she left sufficient floor space to allow free movement by the children? Is the teacher a good housekeeper? Are her board assignments of work neatly and carefully written? The answers to these and other questions that may come to you, will tell you much about the teacher.

Now visit the room when it is occupied. Are the children busily at work? Are they eager and interested? Do they seem to know what the teacher expects of them? Are they exercising initiative, self-control, and self-direction? Do they take pride in their work? Is there freedom of speech and of action without license? Is there a spirit of friendliness and helpfulness in the room? Do the children seem to be actually mastering what they are studying? Is their knowledge of facts exact? Are they studying things which seem worth while to them and to you?

It is essential that you should not sit down in the corner, notebook in hand, to find the answers to these and similar questions. Join a group in the room, become a working member of the group, engage in the lively give-and-take which characterizes good group life. Talk freely to the children and let them talk freely to you.[10] In a Lower School classroom, join in the block play, or join a group beginning chart reading or a group just beginning a new pre-primer, or a group modeling in clay. Given half a chance, the children will joyfully put you to work. They will be very frank in their criticisms and suggestions, so show them that you can take it on the chin if need be. (If you are too dignified to do this, you shouldn't be principal!) Talk to the children as man to man, as reasonable human beings. Even five-year-olds will resent condescension and baby talk on your part. (Don't say, for example, "Now, what are my dear little folks doing *today*?")

The best kind of supervision occurs when your teachers are plunged deep in a series of school problems which seem worth while to them, and they seek your help as a comrade and fellow worker. The various enterprises noted in the first section of this chapter permit frequent and helpful participation by the principal, and when you work alongside another person for weeks, each learns to know the other far more fully

[10] The writer remembers with considerable amusement sitting down with a small group of five-year-olds who were cutting out magazine illustrations for a scrapbook. One of the little girls handed him a magazine and a pair of scissors, saying crisply, "Now *you* get busy!"

than in the conventional principal-teacher relationship. For example:

You visit the room during a study period in arithmetic. The teacher is checking the children's written work through individual conference, and you set up shop in the opposite corner of the room from her and divide the checking with her.

The teacher in a Lower School classroom is busy with a small reading group in one corner of the room, and you pass quietly and unobtrusively from one to another of the four or five groups of children who are not engaged in reading so as to see that the non-reading children are kept busily and profitably at work.

The teacher in an Upper School classroom is having difficulty with map locations with a few children who seem to have no sense of direction. You take these children off her hands and, with the aid of a wall map, give them some badly needed drill, freeing her for other tasks.

The teacher who supervises your school garden has a class of boys at the necessary and unlovely task of spading up the garden after the long, dry summer. You can sit on the fence and "supervise," or you can roll up your sleeves and give a helping hand.

A teacher is developing three-part singing. The altos are pretty weak. Obviously, the teacher cannot sing all three parts at once, so you sit with the altos and swell the volume of their contribution.

All these and much more are possible. There are many jobs waiting for you in each classroom in your building if you have the insight to see them and the necessary sense of humor to enjoy them. By and by, your teachers will be saying of you, "He's regular!" or, that *magna cum laude* of the teachers' rest room, *"Our principal's swell!"*

Be patient. A few teachers will resent your participation in classroom activities because (*a*) the teacher doesn't want you around, (*b*) she is afraid of criticism and suggestion, however tactful and indirect, (*c*) her discipline is shaky, and she honestly believes you are making it shakier, (*d*) she is afraid

you will learn too much about her, (*e*) she believes you are lowering the dignity of the principal, or (*f*) she herself doesn't believe in participation on the children's level and thinks you are "showing her up." Smile sweetly and stick to your guns.

IV. A Specific Program in Directing Learning

Since many principals work best from specific suggestion rather than from general discussion, the present chapter closes with a simple program which has proved workable in many schools. It is intended primarily for the principal who has met success in his capacity as a general manager and wishes direction toward the preliminary moves which he must make toward becoming a director of instruction. The material given below, therefore, is organized in the form of directions addressed to the principal.

1. *Get the facts*

Visit repeatedly each classroom in your building until you know:

What kind of classroom environment is maintained by the teacher.

What types of experiences she provides for her children.

What goals she has set to be attained at the end of the semester.

What methods of teaching and what types and amounts of materials are evident in her classroom.

What results she appears to attain.

2. *Cultivate the growth of the scientific attitude on the part of your teachers*

Many teachers are supersensitive and any casual question, however innocent of intent to criticize, makes them "dreadfully upset." In many cases, to have a principal raise a question as to the validity of method or results is to make the teacher feel that she has received a personal insult. Cultivate an open, tolerant mind.

3. *Ask each teacher to inform you as to her plans*

This may be a short, simple statement as to her plans for the semester – the goals she aims to reach in her instructional program and how she proposes to reach these goals. Careful study of this statement will reveal strengths and weaknesses. Capitalize on the former and remedy the latter.

4. *Ask each teacher for a copy of her daily classroom program*

Be sure that it is actually the program in use and not something for the register. While in many situations the principal is compelled to follow a meticulous program on which each subject must receive its definite number of minutes per day, the trend in all modern school systems is toward a simple and flexible daily program in which the functional units are "fields of experience" rather than subjects. Again, no program should be repeated day after day without change, as the teacher must feel free to alter her time schedule according to the exigencies of the moment. When a class takes a tailspin in reading ability, the time for reading instruction needs to be modestly increased. If a class is completing an unusually significant unit in the social studies, it may be advisable to increase the time allowed for the subject.

Following the philosophy of education advocated in this book, it is assumed that each teacher will endeavor to formulate a balanced daily program which shall give children experiences each day in (*a*) the fundamental bodily skills – physical education, calisthenics, games, rhythm, health, nutrition, rest, safety, etc.; (*b*) the fundamental intellectual skills – the three R's, the social studies, science, the language arts; (*c*) the fundamental social skills – the gentle art of living together peaceably; (*d*) the aesthetics; and (*e*) the practical arts.

V. *Discipline*

Something should be said about discipline because of its close relation to learning. The proper term is, of course, "behavior" rather than "discipline," but the old-fashioned term

is used because parents and other laymen are concerned over the kind of discipline the principal maintains in his school. Are the children orderly? Do they have good manners? Can they be trusted when left alone in an emergency? Do they evidence self-control, self-respect, responsibility, and initiative? These are some of the questions asked.

The dictionary defines "discipline" as "submission to authority leading to obedience." This is the military concept, but the public school has a wider concept which may be expressed in the following assumptions:

1. We are all subject to discipline. Life, itself, is the great disciplinarian. We are disciplined by disaster, misfortune, illness, family, and professional responsibilities. We must accept discipline as one of the continuing factors which affect all social life.

2. Marriage and parenthood are two great disciplines. Out of these we should gain patience, tolerance, unselfishness, and the knowledge that the one real happiness in life is making other people happy.

3. We should begin the discipline of very little children by providing them with behavior patterns, simple rules of conduct, which they are to follow implicitly. As the child grows older, these behavior patterns should be enlarged to meet the needs of the growing child.

4. Observance of the social code should be rewarded, not in material form, but in the form of praise, encouragement, and appreciation. Violations of the code always should be punished; there must be no exceptions. Once a child is allowed to "get by," the whole social structure falls to the ground. It is the inevitability of punishment which makes it significant.

5. We must not lay on the growing child a responsibility for his conduct beyond his strength, his judgment, and his experience. The parent or teacher who says to the five-year-old, "Now, Junior, let us reason this out together as man to man," is making a tragic mistake. To most children up to twelve years of age, the fact that "Daddy says so," or "Mama says so" is sufficient.

6. From the twelve-year-old level onward, responsibility for conduct should be transferred gradually to the child. Great care should be taken to go slowly in this regard during the stormy, emotional period of pre-adolescence and adolescence.

7. Every school needs to formulate an accepted code of conduct through joint action of parents and school people. Once this code is adopted, it should become a tradition in the school to observe the code as a point of honor.

8. The effectiveness of a school is judged primarily in terms of the conduct of the children. Let us work hard to build respect for acceptable social behavior. Let us go ahead a step farther and build also a tradition of good manners.

9. Include in the program of each school routines and occasions which require instant and immediate obedience. Fire drills, shelter drills, marching, and simple military drills are examples.

10. Maintenance of an acceptable social code based upon a realistic approach to discipline does not interfere in the least with the socialization of children which goes on in the modern classroom. Nevertheless, the children must be led to recognize that while they are bound only by the fewest and simplest rules consistent with the public welfare, these rules must be faithfully observed. In the school, as in the nation, the best government is the least government consistent with safety, but this least government must be recognized at all times as binding on all parties concerned.

Neither the principal nor the teacher can go into a given school situation and say, "I'm going to have this kind of discipline." The matter is out of his hands. He will have that kind of discipline which the social level of the children makes possible — no more, no less. While there are all sorts of possibilities as regards the stages of social development, it is likely that most children will have reached one or the other of the following levels:

1. *Autocracy.* A class may be made up of children who are definitely anti-social, lawless, and who have no respect for authority and need a firm hand. It is not considered good form

to mention such conditions, but they exist. Therefore, the gospel of sweetness and light is not applicable.

2. *Delegation.* As the children evolve into fairly good manners and a little more self-control and submit themselves to the chastening hand of teacher and principal, it may be possible, in minute doses and at widely separated intervals, to grant little duties to a few children until the members of the class can accept delegated authority and not abuse it. The whole room sits spellbound to see John allowed to take a note to the office. Will he return, or will he improve the shining hour by playing hookey?

3. *Co-operation.* By mutual agreement the children, as the party of the first part, and teacher and principal, as party of the second part, agree to divide the responsibilities and privileges of the classroom. This represents about as high a social level as most classes attain.

4. *Autonomy.* The children are so socially matured that they successfully assume most of the routine procedures of the classroom, thus freeing the teacher to devote all her time to the direction of learning.

The wise principal, pondering all these things in his heart, will be an "essentialist" as regards classes in the first stage, an extreme "progressive" as regards classes in the last stage, and a judicious mixture of both with respect to classes in the second and third stages of development.

Notes on Chapter Six

An adequate bibliography on the direction of learning would fill a volume. The following notes are offered merely to give the principal a few suggestions upon which to build a reference list of his own on the subject.

1. *Twelfth Yearbook, Newer Instructional Practices of Promise.* Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1939. This gives the principal a brief summary of the field in question under the following headings: Democracy, Mental Hygiene; Community Relations; The Integrated Curriculum; Industrial Arts; Dramatic Play; Physical Education; Science; Reading; The Arts; Arithmetic.

2. *Eighteenth Yearbook, Enriching the Curriculum For the*

Elementary-School Child. Department of Elementary School Principals. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1939. Especially helpful chapters: IV, "Developing Appreciations and Creative Abilities"; V, "Enrichment Through School Materials and Equipment"; VI, "Making Use of Community Resources."

3. Bobbitt, Franklin, *The Curriculum of Modern Education.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941. In his opening chapter, the author analyzes the term "the good life," and in succeeding chapters shows how it may be lived. This is a stimulating book which will greatly enlarge the reader's concept of the educative process. Required reading.

4. Barr, A. S., William H. Burton, and Leo J. Brueckner, *Supervision.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938. This revision of the standard work on supervision in American elementary schools is required reading for all elementary-school principals. As pointed out in the Preface, the center of gravity, so to speak, has shifted in the present revision from the training of teachers in service to an analysis of the total teaching-learning situation. The four sections into which the book is divided indicate the recent approach to supervision: The Background of Modern Supervision; Studying the Teaching-Learning Situation; Improving the Teaching-Learning Situation; and Improving the Means, Methods, and Outcomes of Supervision. If the immense length of the book (963 pages) dismays the prospective reader, he should remember that this is a source book as well as a text and that he will find it so organized as to make it easy for him to select what he needs.

5. Washburne, Carleton, *A Living Philosophy of Education.* New York: John Day Company, 1941. An older and more mellow Washburne reviews the story of Winnetka, and from it constructs a philosophy of education for the modern school.

6. Melvin, A. Gordon, *Method for New Schools.* New York: John Day Company, 1941. If the principal of the modern elementary school is to be an efficient director of learning, he needs to know method. In this book, Dr. Melvin discusses the problem of method in four aspects: technical experiences, artistic experiences, scientific experiences, and social experiences. Required reading.

7. Hollingshead, Arthur D., *Guidance in Democratic Living.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1941. The author has rendered a real service to the American public schools by clarifying many educational concepts which have been universally accepted and generally misunderstood. The chapter on Objectives of a Program of Democratic Living is exceptionally good. Required reading.

8. Dix, Lester, *A Charter for Progressive Education.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. From his rich experiences as principal of Lincoln School, Dr. Dix draws a blueprint of the school of tomorrow. Required reading.

9. Hopkins, L. Thomas, *Interaction — The Democratic Process.* Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1941. The thesis of this book is simple: Let's stop talking about democracy and do something about it. A fine, rich, mature, and civilized book. Required reading.

10. The principal will find many suggestions for the direction of learning in the "special numbers" of *Educational Method,* a partial list of which follows:

March, 1938 — Geography
January, 1939 — Radio
March, 1939 — Teacher and Community
April, 1939 — Redirecting Supervision
May, 1939 — Personal Growth of the Teacher
November, 1939 — Intelligence
December, 1939 — Libraries and Books
January, 1940 — New Patterns in Supervision
November, 1940 — Growth and Development of Children
December, 1940 — The Language Arts
October, 1941 — Reinterpretation of Supervision

11. *Practicing Democracy in the Elementary School.* A bulletin of the Federal Security Agency, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1941. The subtitle, "Some Descriptions of Democratic Practices in Kindergarten and Grades One to Eight," indicates the scope of this helpful and practical monograph.

12. *Educational Method* for March, 1937, has three excellent articles on the language arts:

"Language as Social Behavior," by Walter Barnes.
"Speech and Social Behavior," by Thomas E. Coulton.
"The Levels of Language," by Robert C. Pooley.

13. Principals of rural schools will be interested in "Adapting the Curriculum to the Small Rural School," by Helen Heffernan and Gladys S. Potter, in *Educational Method* for November, 1937.

14. It may be advisable for the principal to read what Clara L. Pitts has to say on "Characteristics of a Good Teachers' Meeting" in *Educational Method* for February, 1937.

15. Hubbard, Elizabeth V., *Your Children at School.* New York: John Day Company, 1942. Aspects of children in a first grade at Winnetka, Illinois.

16. Biber, Barbara, and others, *Child Life in School.* New York: E. P. Dutton Company, 1942. A record of seven-year-old children.

CHAPTER SEVEN



Recent Trends in Subject-Matter Fields

IN THE PRESENT CHAPTER the attention of the principal is called to certain trends in the techniques of using subject matter which are of significance to him. Many of these owe their origin to the changing world in which the schools operate, some to the careful work done by experts in educational research, and still others to the pressure of public opinion, which has not been very sympathetic toward the schools in recent years.

I. The Social Studies

As a preliminary to any discussion of the social studies, it should be said that the principal needs most urgently to base his thinking upon sound scholarship. It must be admitted that the average elementary-school principal today does not have such a background, but he can attempt to supply it. A good beginning in the field of social studies may be made with a thoughtful consideration of *Knowledge For What? — The Place of Social Science in American Culture,*[1] commencing with Lynd's definition of "culture":

[1] Robert G. Lynd (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1940).

> The concept "culture" as here used, does not refer to culture in the refined sense of *belles lettres* and sophisticated learning. It is used, rather, in the anthropologist's sense, to refer to all the things that a group of people inhabiting a common geographical area do, the ways they do things and the ways they think and feel about things, their material tools and their values and symbols. Cultures, the world over, reveal the same relatively few identical institutional clusters, though most infinitely varied in emphasis, detail, and functional linkages. Everywhere men are engaged in getting a living, in living with the other sex and rearing young, in making group decisions and maintaining sanctions and taboos, in performing some sort of religious practices, and in carrying on patterned forms of leisure.[2]

If the reader will then master the fine chapter on "The Pattern of American Culture," [3] he will be able to plan an effective social-studies program for his school with the weight of authority back of him. Another source of information in this field is the report published in 1939 by the National Council for the Social Studies under the title *The Future of the Social Studies.*[4] In this document, as is indicated in the subtitle, seventeen experts in the field join to suggest out of their wide experience *Proposals for an Experimental Social Studies Curriculum.* The elementary-school principal will be interested in the following summary:

Problems in the social-studies field center about six topics: (1) objectives, (2) courses, (3) materials, (4) methods, (5) preparation of teachers, and (6) evaluation. Very definite progress has been made on (1), (3), (4), (5), and (6), but no one seems to know *what* to teach and *when* to teach it.

The point of departure in planning for the future of the social studies is probably a general acceptance of the definition as stated in the *Fourteenth Yearbook*: [5] "The social studies embrace

[2] Lynd, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 54-113.

[4] Edited by James A. Michener, 13 Lawrence Hall, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

[5] *The Social Studies Curriculum,* Department of Superintendence (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association), p. 53.

bodies of knowledge and thought pertaining to the relations of human beings – men, women, and children – to one another and to the physical environment in which they live and work." The next step is agreement that, within the spirit of this definition, the social-studies program should not be constructed piecemeal but as a unit, covering the twelve years during which the student proceeds from the first grade to graduation from the high school. The major contributions of this program to the student's development should be (1) *knowledge* of the community, state, nation, and world, (2) inspiration of *social ideals*, and (3) training in *methods of work*.[6] The social-studies program should be organized into a series of problems grouped around certain basic concepts: man's increasing control over nature; man's adaptation to change; the migration of peoples in search of better conditions; the interdependence and co-operation of groups; the cultural heritage, and democracy – social, economic, political.[7]

The totalitarian countries have social ideals, the essence of which lies in the belief that the individual has no significance other than as a servant of the state. Our social ideals are stated in the Declaration of Independence and are implemented by their inclusion as the Bill of Rights in the Constitution of the United States.

A successful social-studies program involves much more in method than mere memorization. The goal to be reached is the ability to do critical thinking which will enable the student to meet successfully the social problems of his time. Skill in thinking can come only through practice in specific techniques of study.

1. *Topics and trends*

An examination of the various sequences in topics suggested by the contributors shows substantial agreement in centering the social-studies program for the kindergarten and the first three elementary-school grades around the home, the imme-

[6] *The Future of the Social Studies, op. cit*, p. 6.
[7] *Ibid.*, p. 7.

diate neighborhood, and the community. From that point on, the experts disagree, as is shown by the following topics:

Howard R. Anderson:
Grade IV. Making A Living In the United States
V. Everyday Life Through the Ages
VI. Man's Progress Through the Ages

Roy W. Hatch:
Grade IV. Other People In Other Lands
V. The United States and Its North American Setting.
VI. The United States Since the Civil War

R. O. Hughes:
Grade IV. European Backgrounds
V. History of the United States to the Civil War
VI. The Geography of the United States (together with the history of our country since 1860)

Henry Kronenberg:
Grade IV. How People Live and Work in the United States
V. How People Live In Other Parts of the World
VI. How Our Country Came to Be What It Is

James Quillen:
Grade IV. The Historical Development of Contemporary Community Life
V. Science and Invention in the Modern World
VI. The Effects of Science and Invention on Inter-Community Relations

Lacking any general agreement as to what shall be taught in social studies in Grades IV, V, and VI, the best one can do is to indicate certain trends which appear evident at the present time.

1. An increase in emphasis upon the history and geography of the United States and a decrease in emphasis upon the European backgrounds of American culture.

2. A strong trend toward a return to history as history, to geography as geography, and away from the integration-fusion point of view.

3. An increase of emphasis upon the impact of the Power Age on American culture.

4. An increased recognition of the importance of the arts in culture as a stabilizing factor against overemphasis upon the scientific aspects of culture.

5. An increased emphasis upon the need for more genuine scholarship based upon sound knowledge of facts. In support of this point of view, Morehouse lists the following fundamental assumptions:

(1) There is need for the re-establishment and stabilizing of the family, the school, the church, and government.

(2) Personal character needs to be re-established and stabilized "in a time of moral slump" to result in personal integrity; respect for law; ability to know and tell the truth; humanitarian interest and responsibility.

(3) Certain attitudes and practices in modern education need drastic revision. There should be a return to the earlier emphasis on the teaching of ethics. The policy of promoting pupils solely on the basis of chronological age, regardless of the quality of the work performed, together with the policy of making the requirements in each grade so low that even the dullest and most shiftless child can meet them, has resulted not only in lowering academic standards but in leading the nation dangerously close to a complete moral and intellectual breakdown. No pupil should be promoted who "has not honestly passed a reasonable requirement for the preceding grade, whether he be six or twenty years of age." [8]

(4) There is need in government for honesty and efficiency in safeguarding the constitutional rights of citizens and for clarification of the true functions of government.

(5) There is need in society for simplification of group government, official and unofficial; a need for leadership and training in "followship."

(6) The curriculum should be aimed at "the maximum development of the normal and talented youth of the land, not the inferior or subnormal."

In the same connection, Kronenberg warns extreme progressives not to drown their students in facts in the attempt to enrich the curriculum.

> If one is attempting to appreciate the contribution that the Atlantic cable made in communication, the number of layers

[8] Frances Morehouse, "A Course of Social Studies for American Schools," *op. cit.*, pp. 106-117.

> of insulation, the weight of the cable per mile, or the principles of its operation are probably not essential, and as a matter of fact may even distract from one's study of its importance. If a pupil acquires some of the facts cited, or others like them, no one would object that they were harmful, but the insistence that all of these and others must be included is likely to lead one into the absurdity of having the supporting details crowd out the main idea.[9]

The author of this book is forced by his experience to one inevitable conclusion – that whatever program in the social studies is followed, the child who graduates from the sixth grade to the junior high school *must* possess an irreducible minimum of genuine knowledge about the general outlines of the history and geography of the United States, together with those emotional attitudes which make for true patriotism. Wishful thinking will not ensure these desirable outcomes; they can be won only by hard work. A number of school systems have reverted to a multiple-track program in which certain specifics in geography, history, and civics are taught in each grade. Hughes[10] even goes so far as to indicate twelve specific topics to be taught in the fourth grade, seventeen in the fifth grade, and fifteen in the sixth grade.

If the principal is to restore history and geography to a more respectable status than they hold in many school systems, he needs to examine his own grasp of these fundamental subjects, fundamental in the true sense of being the foundation on which all good social-studies programs are based. As an example of the background needed in devising a study of the geography of the United States in the fifth or sixth grade, the principal will do well to grasp the meaning of the term "regionalism" as developed in that imposing volume *American Regionalism*[11] by Odum and Moore. If this seems too stiff a dose for the amateur, he might prefer to begin with *My Country 'Tis of Thee*[12] by the irrepressible and highly com-

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 79.
[10] *The Future of the Social Studies, op. cit.*, pp. 42-56.
[11] New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1938.
[12] New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940.

petent Lucy Sprague Mitchell and her collaborators Eleanor Bowman and Mary Phelps, written (so they say) "for anyone not too young to think and not too old to feel."

What is the place of "units of work" in a modern social-studies program? We must be careful not to place the cart before the horse. We are opposed to the procedure of arbitrarily assigning units of work to a given grade on the dubious assumption that these are "good for children." We need to take the long view, the over-all view of the goals we strive to reach. Out of our social-studies program we wish children, when they complete the sixth grade, to have gained a fairly good grasp of the fundamental facts on the twelve-year-old child's level of the history of our country, and of the economic, social, and cultural life of Americans today. Whenever, in our pursuit of the topics in the sequence followed, a major interest develops in the classroom which can be satisfied by a unit on pioneer life, on westward expansion, on communication, on transportation, on farming, or fishing, or forest conservation, such a unit should be developed in full as far as time permits. However, let us keep our eyes on the final goals we are aiming toward and not make the fatal mistake of stringing together a heterogeneous assortment of unrelated units of work and calling that sequence a social-studies program. It is patently absurd to assume that from a unit of work on aviation, for example, a sixth-grade child can learn all he needs to know about the history and geography of his country.

2. *Making a social-studies program*

The following specific suggestions for making a social-studies program may prove helpful:

(1) The program for social studies in grades three to six, inclusive, *should be made by all the teachers concerned sitting in conference with the principal.* Only in this way can a continuity of development be assured.

(2) Block out roughly the sequence of topics decided upon by the conference as adapted to the needs of the children in the particular school engaged in the task.

(3) Examine the entire book supply available in the school — textbooks, social-studies readers, "regular" readers having some social-studies content, maps, and visual aids in general, to see how far materials of instruction are available in the school for the program roughly marked out.

(4) Modify the program, if necessary, in order to make sure of having appropriate materials of instruction. It is folly to embark on a unit of work or any other procedure unless materials are accessible.

(5) Set up an evaluation program of some kind to check on progress from time to time.

The activity movement, the center-of-interest and the unit-of-work programs have done a great deal to stimulate thinking and to enrich the social studies in our elementary schools. A positive liability to set against their many assets is the fact that often children have lived through many delightful experiences in the social studies only to come out with the vaguest ideas imaginable, and a motley collection of items of misinformation. Here is one of the problems to which we must give serious consideration and for which we must find a solution.

II. The Language Arts

Two major revolutions have occurred within the last fifteen years in American elementary education in the field of the language arts. The publication in 1925 of the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook* of the National Society, *Part One*, "Report of the National Committee on Reading," [13] set in motion a train of events which resulted in the theory and practice of reading which are found today in all progressive school systems of the nation. The supplementary report of the National Society, which appeared in 1937 as the *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook, Part One*, "A Second Report on Reading," not only reinforced and emphasized the point of view which appeared in the earlier report, but, in a very literal sense, made possible the various series of modern readers which have appeared within

[13] Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company.

the last five years and which have contributed so greatly to the competence and delight of elementary-school children in reading.

A second revolution in the field had its inception with the publication in 1935 of *An Experience Curriculum in English* by the Curriculum Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English, under the editorial direction of W. Wilbur Hatfield.[14] Here the language arts are conceived as made up of *Literature, Reading, Creative Expression, Oral and Written Communication,* and *Corrective Work.* The keynote of the modern language-arts program is embodied in the sentence, "Language is a form of social behavior." From this standpoint, language is not so much subject-matter-to-be-learned as a constant accompaniment of all experiences in the day's work in school. The *Experience Curriculum* was followed in 1936 by "The Development of a Modern Program in English," the *Ninth Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association.[15] These publications have brought about in just a few years a completely new point of view toward language as an item in the elementary-school curriculum. This new point of view may be illustrated by the *Experience Curriculum's* concept of "Communication" as made up of the informal, conversational speech which pervades the entire experience program in the school; the more formal speech of report, conference, and discussion; the still more formal speech of address and debate; the social conventions; and the writing which children do in satisfying inner or outer needs.[16]

In introducing the language series of which he is the editor, Paul McKee [17] has listed four basic needs in language on the part of school children:

> To know what to say and when to say it (either in speech or in writing)

[14] New York: D. Appleton-Century Company. [15] Washington, D.C.

[16] A discussion of these points will be found in Robert Hill Lane, *The Teacher in the Modern Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941).

[17] In a pamphlet *What Makes a Language Program Successful?* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941).

To be able to say it clearly and fully
To say it with due respect to accepted standards in language
To bear in mind the social amenities while saying it

The teacher cannot grasp these desirable outcomes out of the air. She has to reach them by having a definite place on her daily program for language teaching and learning directed toward specific ends. The newer textbooks reflect the recent trends.[18] In general, there are four types:

Type One: A short, easy reference book in English usage, such as *How to Speak and Write,*[19] and *Handbook of English For Boys and Girls.*[20] The argument for this type of language text is that the origin of all modern language teaching is found in the experiences going on all day in school and out of it, that these experiences are unique with respect to the particular home-school environment, and that they cannot possibly be anticipated in a text devised to meet the needs of all children everywhere. Therefore, a general reference book in language is sufficient.

Type Two: This is similar to Type One except that it is a "teaching" book rather than a reference book. Accordingly, it lists the "language jobs" which children must perform in order to express themselves adequately and provides learning situations in which the necessary language techniques may be acquired. The teaching material contained in the text is organized in units, each of which deals with a specific language job. An example of this type of language text is the *Language for Meaning* series.[21]

Type Three: This is essentially a supplemental reader in the social studies, but it is so organized on a unit basis as to

[18] The interested reader is referred to the excellent chapters on the language arts in the *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook*, Part One, of the National Society for the Study of Education, *Child Development and the Curriculum.*

[19] Paul McKee, Harriet E. Peet, and George F. Nardin (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940).

[20] Delia E. Kibbe and others (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1939).

[21] Paul McKee, M. Lucile Harrison, and Annie McCowen (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940).

provide maximum learnings in language. The argument for this type, which is opposed to that noted in Type One, is that while no one can anticipate all the experiences that may go on in a specific situation, there are many school experiences which are common to all elementary-school children of a given grade or age level and that language material may be selected from these experiences so as to provide desirable language outcomes and be organized in such a manner as to prove interesting and helpful. An example of this type is the *English Experiences* series.[22]

Type Four: This is a combination of Types One and Three, approximately half of each volume being devoted to social-studies material controlled to yield language outcomes, the other half being used as a ready-reference section including considerable practice material. An example of this type is the *English in Action* series.[23]

With the theory of a modern language-arts program so easily accessible in recent educational literature, and with the provision of modern materials in the form of new language textbooks and workbooks, it seems that the conquest of the mother tongue might be accomplished without tears. Certainly, there is no excuse for the school system which refuses to budge from an outmoded, traditional, and reactionary attitude toward this subject.

1. *Recent trends in reading*

A recent and highly interesting trend in reading (which, as we must remind the reader, is one of the language arts) is the emphasis both on providing reading materials in various school subjects and on the need for varying techniques in reading method according to the subject in hand. Considerable attention is paid to this problem in a bulletin of the National Con-

[22] Mark A. Neville, and others (Chicago: Rand McNally Company, 1938).

[23] R. W. Bardwell, and others (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1938).

ference on Research in English [24] in which some new "modes of thought" are described as follows:

Geography: The concepts of location as related to relief features, to natural vegetation types and to human settlement; the relation of culture to environment; a vocabulary peculiar to geography; various types of maps, tables, graphs, and sometimes the sight of an unfamiliar divided page.

History: A method of exposition of historical events in chronological sequence which requires the reader to visualize the event if it is to have meaning. The reader has to make generalizations, apply them, make comparisons, develop new concepts and, above all, to attach meanings to what he reads. The teacher will have to assume the responsibility of guiding her pupils constantly until they can effectively handle this type of material.

Science: An interest in science; a scientific attitude; a background of knowledge adequate enough to solve scientific problems within his ability, and some skill in scientific thinking. Through his reading the child checks his conclusions, arrives at generalizations, secures data other than that secured through experiment, and finds explanations of phenomena. The technical vocabulary offers considerable difficulty.

Arithmetic: Reading materials in which numerals constantly appear, involving new techniques of reading. The child must learn to grasp the implications of a problem during his first reading of it, apart from the act of computation. Here is a major difficulty with which the teacher must grapple, as children tend to fly at once to the manipulation of numbers without pausing to get the facts, make generalizations, or find a problematic solution based upon ideas rather than words.[25] The pupil must read slowly; if he misses a step in his reason-

[24] "Reading In the Intermediate Grades," Eighth Annual Research Bulletin, Gertrude Whipple, Chairman (Detroit, Michigan, 1940).

[25] As, for example, the little girl: "If the two numbers are the same size, I *add*. If one is bigger than the other, I *subtract*. If one number is twice as long as the other, I *multiply*, and if I don't know what to do, I *divide*." She added naïvely, "When I subtract, it doesn't really make any difference which number you have on top!"

ing, he must return and reread. The vocabulary offers difficulties – semi-technical terms unfamiliar to him, familiar words used in technical senses, and totally unfamiliar words. In arithmetic, slow reading rather than rapid reading is to be desired. The exact meaning of mathematical symbols offers new difficulties. Descriptions of processes are often given in such concise form that the pupil is unable to interpret them and needs instruction in mastering their meanings.[26]

This section of *Reading In the Intermediate Grades* is concluded by the following paragraph:

> In the content fields, if anywhere, the middle-grade child can learn how to study. But unless the subject teacher is keenly aware of the nature of the reading problem, the pupil will frequently learn neither to study nor to read.[27]

There is a firm conviction among teachers of the middle grades that all children who come to them should have mastered the mechanics of reading completely in the primary grades, and thereby those specific reading skills which make for effective reading. There are two flaws in this contention: first, as children mature, need arises for new specific skills in reading when the children are exposed to new types of reading materials; second, old skills can be kept alive only through continuous practice at regular intervals. Some of the skills demanded by a modern program of reading may be found in the following list, which has been freely adapted from the middle-grade books of a very recent series of readers by Ernest Horn and others: [28]

> Answering questions on materials read
> Setting questions in advance of the reading and finding the answers

[26] Whipple, *op. cit.*, pp. 43-46 (adapted). [27] *Ibid.*, p. 46.

[28] *Progress in Reading Series*: Book Three, *People and Places*; Book Four, *More Adventures*; Book Five, *Following New Trails*; Book Six, *Reaching Our Goals.* Collaborating authors include Maude McBroom, Kathryn Smith, Ruth Moscrip, Isabelle McDonald Porter, Bess Goodykoontz, and Mabel I. Snedaker (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1940).

Proving answers correct by verifying from the text
Finding proof of a statement

Getting facts from a story
Reasoning from facts given and forming a conclusion
Reading and remembering directions
Reading to remember details
Reading to isolate *important* ideas
Finding subtopics in a story
Finding the subject of a paragraph

Outlining a story
Filling in an outline supplied on material read
Classifying information under appropriate headings
Making brief summaries of materials read
Planning a program from materials read
Reading to make an oral or written report
Arranging the incidents of a story in order
Reading to learn the purpose of the author
Adding words and phrases to one's vocabulary
Learning the meaning of "more" and "less"
Reading to find new words and phrases
Reading to get *exact* meanings
Locating words in a dictionary

Learning how the dictionary helps in the pronunciation of words
Discriminating among the various meanings of a word
Using a dictionary to find the meanings of words
Learning to use the alphabet
Learning to use the telephone directory
Learning about the physical parts of a book: table of contents, index, glossary, etc.

Learning how to read pictures
Learning how to read graphs
Making graphs
Reading a thermometer
Reading a general map
Reading a road map
Reporting on an experiment
Reading a weather map
Reading a weather forecast

Learning how to address envelopes to keep letters from being lost
Learning to think in quantitative terms
Learning to read Roman numerals

Another recent trend in reading is the rapid increase of "readiness" readers or preliminary reading books consisting of pictures which tell a continuous story without the use of words, together with specific drill materials leading to reading readiness. In school districts where parents take the attitude "When my child enters the first grade I want him to bring a reading book home at the end of his first day in school," the readiness reader is an ever-present help in time of trouble. Better than this, the readiness reader is accepted as having great value in a modern program of reading because from it children learn many of the essential reading habits, together with a small, usable vocabulary of sight words.

A return to intensive (basic) reading, as contrasted with extensive (supplemental and incidental) reading, is strongly marked as a current trend. While the extensive reading program is alluring and does cater to child interests and child needs, it often fails because the child does not possess the basic reading skills needed to read the books he wants to read.

2. *The non-oral method in reading*

Considerable discussion has taken place over what is known as the "Non-oral Method" in teaching beginning reading. The reader who finds himself confused by the abstruse language used in educational literature may be comforted by having the argument for the non-oral method reduced to a single sentence: Oral and written language are two separate and distinct things, and to use both in teaching beginners to read confuses children needlessly and trains them in bad habits of reading. Its advocate, James E. McDade, bases his theory on the assumption that persons who read rapidly and effectively as they read silently do so because they have learned to read without having been exposed to the mixture of oral and written language which characterizes the public-

school approach, and the further assumption that the slow silent reader in adult life has been "slowed up," not because of mediocre intelligence, but because his silent reading has been geared through public-school methods in childhood to the far slower tempo of speech.

> The hypothesis underlying the non-oral method of introducing reading is that the understanding of printed symbols requires no use whatever of the processes of oral speech, it is not necessary for the reader to say the words either aloud or to himself. Printed language can be understood more rapidly and more clearly if the burden of complex utterance is completely eliminated. When one is driving a car and the crossing light turns red (a visual symbol), is it not unnecessary and even dangerous to be burdened with a habit of saying "red" or "danger" before putting one's foot on the brake?[29]

While the editorial committee of the *Seventeenth Yearbook* tacitly washes its hands of Mr. McDade by a comment to the effect that his point of view differs sharply from those sponsored by other contributors, it must be admitted that adults who read widely, rapidly, and effectively are likely to be persons who "picked it up" when they were children, without having been formally taught reading in school. At least, one should keep an open mind on the subject until Mr. McDade is shown conclusively to be wrong.

3. *Making a reading pattern*

For the past two years the author has used, with marked success, a plan which helps each principal to make a "reading pattern" which will meet the needs of his particular situation.

The pattern is based on the use of four series of readers, which may be called Series I, II, III, and IV. Each principal is free to choose from the first three series whichever series seems best suited to his needs, and that series becomes the basic series in his school.

If Series I is chosen as the basic series, all the children go through the readiness reader, the pre-primers, the primers, the

[29] *Seventeenth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, *op. cit.*

first readers, and so forth, in Series I. The best readers in the class do supplementary reading on an equivalent level in Series II and perhaps in Series III. The average and slow readers may also do reading in Series II and III if the pace in Series I proves too rapid and too strenuous.

A copy of this pattern, naming all the books in the basic series, the two supplementary series, and Series IV, is given to each teacher in a school. The principal explains the pattern, the teachers discuss it thoroughly, and a copy of it is ultimately fastened on the inside of every classroom closet door for ready reference. Each teacher is expected to begin her semester's work with the titles in Series I suitable to her grade. In a metropolis like Los Angeles, which has a large and shifting population, there is apt to be a considerable range in reading ability in any one classroom, and the teacher usually has three reading groups. If she teaches a B 3 or low third-grade class, it is likely that her reading groups are following these programs:

Best group: Third Reader in Series I
Average group: Second Reader in Series I
Slow group: First Reader in Series I

As soon as the best group completes the Third Reader in Series I, the teacher substitutes a book of equivalent difficulty in Series II, probably the Third Reader in Series II. The average and slow groups, on the other hand, are moved on into the Third Reader in Series I and the Second Reader in Series I, respectively, as fast as their several abilities permit. If the slow group finish the First Reader in Series I but seem to be having trouble with the Second Reader in that series, they are moved to the First Reader in Series II for additional drill.

Series IV merits especial comment. These books, beginning with the readiness reader, pre-primers, first and second readers, are reserved for B 3 classes and above. *They may not be used in first and second grades.* The reason is obvious. It is highly desirable and in many cases imperative that the third-grade teacher (and sometimes the fourth-grade teacher) have access to a reading series to which her slow learning children

have not been exposed. Nothing is more discouraging to a third grader with first-grade reading ability than to be handed a book which he has tried to read and failed to read a year or so before. Reserving Series IV for the third-grade and fourth-grade children of limited ability provides new and fresh reading material for those children.

III. Arithmetic

Another revolution, which is still in its earlier stages, is taking place in the teaching of arithmetic. Due to dissatisfaction with the results obtained, which appear to be incommensurate with the time and effort expended on the subject, there are two suggested solutions: First, alter the conventional grade placements of the more difficult topics; second, make a clear distinction in the teaching of arithmetic between materials which have a *social* value and those which are merely *computational,* then arrive at a just balance between the two. Wilson expresses this point of view:

> The present tendency is strongly toward the original purpose, i.e., the organization of arithmetic around its use as a simple tool in business. If this aim is finally established as the one dominant and justifiable aim, it will mean that we shall need not only to study arithmetic as drill, but also to become *acquainted with business.* For the logical next step, after mastering the simple tools of arithmetic that are useful in business, is to develop simple business units which the children will study as a basis for their written problems work. These simple business units, developed as life situations and closely connected with the pupil's experience and his community, will replace the present useless, isolated written problem as it appears in textbooks.[30]

Wilson calls attention to the fact that there are three viewpoints toward arithmetic at present: (*a*) those who believe so firmly in the theory of mental discipline that they are unwilling to depart from traditional procedures in the teaching of arith-

[30] Guy M. Wilson and others, *Teaching the New Arithmetic* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939), p. 7.

metic; (*b*) those who believe children should have only that arithmetic which is immediately valuable to them as children; and (*c*) those who believe that materials in arithmetic can have great social value for children, both on their immediate experience level and on the level of accepted value in the business world. Wilson comments on this point of view as follows:

> In any case, the start on any work and its further progress can by good teachers be made to rest on child interests. Thus, there are always understanding and motivation in terms of childhood. The start is on the child's level; the work is carried forward on the child's level; common adult usage comes in to set the limits on drill-mastering requirements. The number needs of adults in the more common affairs of life do not go so far beyond child needs as to prevent cordial co-operation between progressives and ultra-progressives.[31]

As a help to the elementary-school principal in checking the teaching of arithmetic, it may prove helpful to present what Wilson has to say on two points: what arithmetical processes are most useful? how much drill is desirable?

Multiplication and addition are the most useful processes. Subtraction, particularly the change-making phase, follows close behind. Division must be perfectly mastered. These four fundamental processes cover more than ninety per cent of adult figuring. The useful fractions are halves, fourths, and thirds. Eighths and twelfths occur often enough in business to merit good teaching. Computations in decimals should be confined to United States money; beyond this point, only a reading value of decimals has value. Denominate numbers and measures should be taught only to meet specific problems met in real life. Percentage and interest are so important that they should be fully taught by objective development.[32]

A reasonable set of criteria for drill may appear as follows: (*a*) Drill should be kept well behind meaning. Children will not respond to drill unless understanding is present. (*b*) The

[31] *Ibid.*, p. 8.
[32] Wilson, *op. cit.*, pp. 17, 18.

child must see the need for drill. (*c*) Drill must fill an immediate special need and not be given "because it may do you good in the future." (*d*) Drill only on those processes which are frequently used. (*e*) A little drill at a time with frequent repetition is far more effective than an initial overdose.[33]

1. *Social arithmetic*

The social significance of arithmetic is very adequately discussed in Chapter XV, "The Development of Ability in Arithmetic" by Brueckner in the *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook, Part One,* of the National Society.[34] Following the modern approach toward arithmetic, Brueckner recognizes two major phases of the subject, *computational arithmetic* and *social arithmetic.* One involves a set of specific skills to be mastered; the other involves a series of social situations which have meaning to the learner. Brueckner's conclusions on arithmetic are of great interest: (1) Much more emphasis is needed at present on social arithmetic. (2) The core of the curriculum in arithmetic should consist of a series of units of social arithmetic carefully adjusted to the needs, interests, and development levels of the children. (3) Out of these units should develop in the minds of the children a realization of the accompanying computational elements involved and a desire to be proficient in their use.

A survey of the arithmetic used by children in daily life apart from school was made by the author of this book, using the pupils of a fifth grade [35] as collaborators. A few of the type problems submitted by the children appear below:

> (*a*) *Selling papers*: Bill sold 12 copies of *Liberty* last month at 5 cents each. He receives 1½ cents per copy for himself. How much does he receive as profit? At one house he secured a dollar bill. How much change did he return? Bob sold 25 copies of *Liberty* at 5 cents, profit 1½ cents per copy;

[33] Adapted from Wilson, *op. cit.*, pp. 93, 94.

[34] Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1939.

[35] Acknowledgment is gratefully made to the principal, Miss Mary Flynn, and the teachers of the Micheltorena School, Los Angeles, for the material reproduced here.

6 copies of *The Ladies' Home Journal* at 10 cents, profit 2½ cents per copy; 2 *Movie Mirror* at 10 cents, profit 2½ cents per copy, and 1 *True Story* at 15 cents, profit 4 cents per copy. What was his total profit?

(*b*) *Buying at the store*: Maxine bought one dozen eggs at 48 cents; two bottles of milk at 9 cents; one box of cereal at 15 cents; one loaf of bread at 10 cents. How much change should she have received from a dollar bill?

(*c*) *Buying Christmas presents*: The various steps involved in these problems were similar to those in (*b*).

(*d*) *Measures*: Glen and his father traveled 3075 miles in their automobile last summer in 10 days. What was the average mileage per day? Bonnie bought a quarter of a yard of cloth at 36 cents per yard. How much was the bill?

(*e*) *Paying for amusements*: Enid's father took the family to the motion-picture theater. He paid adult admission for himself and wife at 30 cents, children's admissions for Enid and her two brothers at 10 cents each. How much did he pay in all? Lois wants to go to the beach. How much would it cost if she must spend 7 cents on the local car each way, 25 cents for the round trip to the beach, and allow herself 25 cents as spending money?

(*f*) *Figuring time*: Frances left home for the beach at 3:00 P.M. Her mother said, "Be home by 5:00 P.M." If it takes Frances 30 minutes each way, when should she leave the beach to arrive home on time?

(*g*) *Hobbies*: Anthony bought a package of stamps containing 350 stamps. He found that 150 French stamps, 88 German stamps, and 75 English stamps were in good condition. The remainder were in poor condition and had to be thrown away. How many were discarded?

(*h*) *Personal finance*: Kathleen receives an allowance of $4.00 per month. Her expenses so far this month are $1.00, 71 cents, 10 cents, 5 cents, 65 cents. How much should she have left?

Even very recent textbooks, however, have not escaped those synthetic problems which have been artificially constructed to secure drill material regardless of the social-utility criterion. A good touchstone for evaluating a problem in arithmetic is to inquire, "Does this problem present a situation common in everyday living?" For example,

Mary got two books for her birthday. One book has 23 pages, the other 149 pages. How many pages all together has Mary to read?

In reading books for enjoyment, we do not pay attention to the number of pages, but to the content. The social value of the problem above is zero.

> Three children bought their mother a book for her birthday. The book cost $2.10. The children shared the cost equally. How much does each pay?

The social value of this problem is obvious, since each child must contribute his share from his allowance.

> Helen spent 4/6 hours in writing invitations and 1/6 hours arranging flowers. How long does she spend?

We are not accustomed to measuring time in sixths of hours. We would ordinarily say "forty minutes" and "ten minutes" under the circumstances.

> Mary wishes to divide 151 daisies among six baskets. This is what she did. 151 daisies divided by 6 equals 25 with 1 as a remainder.

Apparently Mary is subnormal. An intelligent child would put a few daisies in each basket and continue the process until each basket was comfortably filled. Think of the anguish poor Mary must have suffered in having one daisy left over with no place to go!

Let the principal, therefore, examine carefully the arithmetic problems offered to his children and forbid the use of those which do not represent real-life situations.

2. *Arithmetic readiness*

Arithmetic readiness is as important a factor in modern education as reading readiness. As soon as children in primary grades have sufficient reading ability to read a primer with ease and understanding, the addition of a readiness book in numbers, followed by others in the first and second grades, will greatly reduce the child's traditional difficulties in meeting the program in arithmetic in the third grade.

> Needless to say, any number experiences that children have should bear a close relation to life and to children's actual needs. It is not possible in most classrooms to provide each

> child with sufficiently numerous and vital actual experiences. However, there are two kinds of experiences a child may have, *actual* and *vicarious*. Through reading stories in number books, each child may encounter vicariously most of his everyday needs for arithmetic. The stories he reads are not merely related to his own experiences; they become his experiences.[36]

It is a comparatively recent discovery that many school troubles in arithmetic owe their origin to difficulties in reading comprehension. Accordingly, books are now being developed in which quantitative concepts are built up through carefully graded reading materials.

IV. Elementary Science

A comparatively recent development in the program of elementary science is the shift from the rather sentimental "nature study" of the late nineties and the early nineteen hundreds to a more systematic course involving scientific fact on levels appropriate to the development of children. In the last analysis, an effective course in elementary science will be a judicious mixture of nature study and elementary science, the first decreasing in importance and the other increasing in emphasis as the children grow older. In spite of our clearer vision of what constitutes a good program in science, practice lags far behind theory, because many teachers are unprepared to teach the subject, and because of the lack of careful, systematic planning. Here, again, basing the science course upon a series of modern readers in science does much to clarify the situation. While many theorists advocate stoutly that reading must follow after interest, it is equally true that interests follow on reading, providing the reading materials are rich, full, and geared to the abilities and tastes of children.

A recent investigation of science teaching in the writer's own district shows that science is, for the most part, ineffectively taught, owing (*a*) partly to the lack of preparation on the part

[36] J. W. Studebaker and others, *Understanding Numbers* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1939).

of the teacher (*b*) to the teacher's fear that she cannot make a success of her work in this field, and (*c*) to the absence of a well-thought-out, integrated, and co-ordinated science program. To "prime the pump" it may become necessary for the principal to supply his entire school with sets of science readers to start science interests on the part of both children and teachers. When the program is well under way, the books will fall back into their proper place as supplemental aids.

V. *The Fine Arts*

One of the most significant adventures in art education in the United States centered around the cultural needs of a typical American community, Owatonna, Minnesota, a town of 8000 inhabitants. The College of Education of the University of Minnesota, under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation, was empowered to (*a*) discover the art needs of Owatonna, (*b*) develop a functional course of study in art suited to these needs, and (*c*) develop an interest in art in the daily life of the community. If the principal of the elementary school takes his obligation for leadership seriously he will profit greatly by studying the techniques followed in the Owatonna Art Project, as reported by its resident director, Edwin Ziegfield.[37]

By means of conferences with residents of the town, check lists, questionnaires, adult classes in art, assistance given to individuals and organizations in solving art problems, and co-operation with existing social and cultural agencies, it became possible to ascertain with a fair degree of accuracy how far art affected community life. Seven of the generalizations formulated from this community study should be seriously considered by the forward-looking elementary-school principal.

1. Art in some form is used by all people and in all areas of activity; therefore, all areas of art must be included in a functional program of art education.

[37] *Eighteenth Yearbook*, "Enriching the Curriculum for the Elementary School Child," Department of Elementary School Principals (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1939).

2. Problems in art occur as a result of needs in meaningful life situations — never of or by themselves; hence, art work in the schools should be organized in terms of areas of life, areas of experience, or areas of activity.

3. People are generally unaware of the many art values in their environment; hence, the art program in the schools should include the study of local art examples of all types.

4. Art tastes, in general, are compartmentalized; hence, art teaching should clarify the relationships between various fields of art and between art and other subjects.

5. Good solutions of real art problems are a source of satisfaction leading to better integration and personal adjustment; hence, an art program should be organized to achieve this aim.

6. In general, people show most interest in those areas of art with which they have most contact; so emphasis in art teaching must be placed on those areas of art with which the pupil has most contact.

7. In Owatonna, there was little interest in developing and using technical art skills on the part of adults; therefore, art instruction should be organized to develop needed skills without undue emphasis on techniques of art production.[38]

1. *Evolving an art program*

There has been a tremendous change in this field during the past ten years. For many years, art in American schools was merely a school subject limited to a very definite place on the weekly time schedule and to a fixed number of minutes per week. Art was isolated — it had no connection with any other school experience. Today, all this is changed. While lessons in art for art's sake are perfectly permissible in a modern program, as, for example, in mastering certain techniques (how to use the coil method with clay, how to make block prints), art is conceived as an outgrowth from, and as an enrichment of, all the experiences children have in school. There is no contribution which a principal can make to his

[38] *Eighteenth Yearbook, op. cit.*, pp. 292-294.

school which is more worth while than to evolve a rich program in the fine arts.

In checking his ability to supervise an art program, the principal may test his fitness by taking pencil and paper, and, without preparation, answer those everyday problems likely to arise in teaching art to children which are listed by Winslow: [39]

1. How well can we arrange things so that they will look well?
2. What colors do we see every day?
3. How can we use drawing to tell others what we are thinking about?
4. How can we make capital letters and numerals?
5. How is the ruler used in measuring?
6. When do we have rhythm in a design?
7. What ten hues do we find in the color circle?
8. How are stories illustrated by means of a drawing?
9. How can we make lower-case letters?
10. When is there balance in a design?
11. What colors are most different from each other?
12. How do colors differ from one another in darkness and lightness?
13. What kind of picture is used to show the shape and position of objects most economically?
14. How can we make boldface capital letters and numerals?
15. How may space in a design be divided in an artistic way?
16. How do colors differ from one another in strength?

2. *The music program*

Let the principal look to his music program. Is there an overemphasis on techniques? Is an excessive amount of time spent on drill? Are music materials unattractive? Do the children dislike music as a school subject? Unfortunately, in most elementary schools, the answer is "yes" to all these questions. What are we after in the school music program – the exploitation of a few children talented in music, or the enjoyment and enthusiasm of all the children? Are techniques ends in themselves or merely means to ends?

[39] Leon Winslow, *The Integrated School Art Program* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939).

A sound elementary-music program begins in the kindergarten and is based upon the child's sense of rhythm, his natural tendency to use music as a means of self-expression, and his sensuous enjoyment of pleasant sounds. Why not build upon these traits in developing good music up to and through the sixth grade? The cardinal principle to observe is that music shall be joyful, and the child who masters techniques and submits peaceably to continued practice and drill does so because he has been shown that increased proficiency means increased pleasure. A modern elementary-school program, therefore, is a complex affair. It involves dancing, rhythms, marching, singing in groups, singing in assembly, community singing with adults, and playing in the rhythm band and the school orchestra. Let there be a *joyful* noise unto the Lord! [40]

VI. The Practical Arts

In recent years, there has been a steady decline in the effectiveness of the practical-arts program in American elementary schools, due partly to propaganda against school expenditures and to propaganda for a return to the 3-R's curriculum. That school system which publicly announces its adherence to the philosophy of the whole child, and then proceeds to give him a lopsided education stressing intellectual development only, is convicted immediately of insincerity. A general industrial-arts program for all children which leads into wood and metal shop for the boys and the household arts for the girls can be successfully defended by the psychologist, the biologist, and the sociologist, as well as by the intelligent layman who believes in all-around development of personality.

The arguments for the practical arts are obvious: the natural need for muscular development beginning with the large muscles and proceeding to the finer adjustments of finger and wrist; the natural need for self-expression; the development of a sense of craftsmanship; the desire to imitate older men and

[40] Emphasis, please, on the joys rather than the noise!

women who are skilled in some particular field involving manual dexterity; the desire to participate in our industrial civilization (as, for example, the small boy who builds toy airplanes); the child's need for acquaintance with tools and processes; the opening of new occupations for leisure; and the therapeutic value of handwork for the victim of strain or nervousness.

VII. Growth and Development

There are relatively few elementary-school principals who have seen the whole growth-and-development program in true perspective. It is in a very real sense, the *total* school program, the component parts being physical, intellectual, social, and emotional growth. In so far as subject matter can contribute to one or more of these, subject matter is valuable. As an end in and for itself alone, it has no meaning.

Mention is made of growth and development in this section from a narrow point of view for the purpose of answering the question, "Is there a body of knowledge which can be used with children for teaching *specific* phases of growth and development in the classroom?" The answer is "yes," but not in terms of that "Eat spinach and keep your feet dry" health education which has found a last resting place in certain school textbooks. While the practice has been followed in this book of relegating references to books to the bibliographies at the ends of the chapters, the rule is broken in this case in mentioning the *New Health and Growth*[41] series of readers in growth and development, which is a pioneer in the field. Analysis of *Healthful Ways* devised for the eight- and nine-year-old level (fourth grade) indicates the following approaches: Why are people afraid? How can we overcome fear? How can we profit by mistakes? How can we budget our time so as to use it more effectively and happily? How may we balance work, play, and rest? What do we need to

[41] W. W. Charters, Dean F. Smiley, and Ruth M. Strang (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941).

know about muscles to make them work properly? What is the relation of height and weight to growth? How may we avoid common colds? How may we select foods that secure maximum growth? How may we keep our community sanitary? How may we avoid common household accidents?

All this is worlds apart from what is usually called "health" in the elementary school — a dreary routine of superficial health examinations, recommendations to the home, superficial checking by the school nurse, and lectures on vitamins. Physical examination, diagnosis, and treatment do have a very definite place in the development program, but they are only parts of what should be an integrated program involving all phases of child growth. The modern elementary-school principal, therefore, needs to know how far he can contribute to such a program by direct teaching, as indicated above.

VIII. Citizenship

Like the growth-and-development program, of which it is a part, citizenship is a quality which is being developed throughout every waking hour of the child's life — at least, we hope so. Many teachers and supervisors question the value of attempting to teach citizenship through direct instruction in the classroom, yet a recent trend is discernible in that direction. There appears to be a place for supplemental reading material which will illuminate those phases of citizenship likely to be a matter of constant concern to children at their conference periods and of general interest at all times.[42]

IX. The Community as a Source of Materials of Instruction

We are just beginning to realize that not all instructional materials are found in books. One of the first opportunities open to the progressive principal is to conduct a community survey in co-operation with children, teachers, community

[42] See reference to *The Democracy Readers*, pp. 75-76.

leaders, commercial firms, and cultural agencies, to ascertain the amount and nature of instructional materials which are available to children through direct and through vicarious experience. While intended primarily for rural and village schools, all principals will find helpful the inventory on community resources in the *Eighth Yearbook*[43] under the headings:

> (*a*) *Occupational activities*: farming, farm service, manufacturing, fishing, lumbering, mining, transportation and communication, trading, professional and personal services, and miscellaneous services.
>
> (*b*) *Institutions*: the home, church, school, museum, library, newspaper, county fair, government processes and services, banks and insurance companies, recreational institutions, hospitals and other "service" institutions, Grange and Community Club.
>
> (*c*) *Recreational opportunities*: recreational reading, listening to and participating in music, play activities, individual interests (hobbies), social activities.
>
> (*d*) *Historical resources*: local history, local historical landmarks, place names, pioneer furniture, pioneer homes, pioneers of note.
>
> (*e*) *Local cultural heritage*: local levels of language; local idioms; community and regional literature in folk tale, history, song, and story; local art forms as expressed in pictures, landscape art, statuary, furniture and ceramics; contributions of local minority groups; significant living persons in the community.
>
> (*f*) *Nature*: land and water forms; soil, rocks, and minerals; atmosphere, seasonal weather; local plant and animal life.[44]

Valuable suggestions in studying community resources may be obtained from the various state and city guidebooks issued through the Federal Writers' Projects sponsored by the Works Progress Administration. The *New York City Guide*[45] for

[43] "Materials of Instruction," Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935).

[44] *Eighth Yearbook, op. cit.*, pp. 27-32 (shortened and adapted).

[45] New York: Random House. 1939.

example, is a treasure chest of information for all schools in or near our largest city. A profusion of photographs, prints, and maps greatly enriches the excellent historical and geographical information offered in this noteworthy contribution to the literature of American community life.

Miss Fanny Dunn summarizes neatly the types of resources available in the environment:

> Opportunities to observe the materials and processes of nature, to re-live the past through contact with historical remains, to gain concrete evidence of the influence of earth factors on human living, to see the agencies and institutions of society in action, and even to participate in some degree in the control of nature and in the processes of society.[46]

Lucy Sprague Mitchell warns us that there is much more to community resources than the bare resources themselves. It is true that people do things to their environment and that the environment does things to people, and that little children are interested mainly in the *how* of things — *how* water is brought down from the mountains to supply a great city, *how* an oil derrick works, *how* gold is gathered from rivers in the foothills. As children grow older, however, they demand to know the *why* of things — the interaction between individual and group psychologies and the environment.

> What makes Southern California feel so superior to Northern California, and vice-versa? What brought the Okies to California? Questions of this sort lead them to "ham and eggs," to migratory laborers and unions, to laws regarding aliens, to the Dust Bowl, to all sorts of characteristic economic and social phenomena and beliefs which are as much a part of the environment as the amount of rainfall or the size of the orange crop. The social environment, like the physical, begins at home.[47]

Mrs. Mitchell recalls the early days in her teaching career when her pupils were hurried from the fascinating environment in which they lived to a school where they studied

[46] *Eighth Yearbook, op. cit.*, p. 26.

[47] Lucy Sprague Mitchell, "How Big Is Your Environment?" in *Los Angeles School Journal*, March 11, 1940.

Eskimos. From this simple communal life, the children proceeded step by step to more complex social situations. Mrs. Mitchell is not enamored of this plan because

> though children are walked through the ages at a good clip, they can hardly reach their home town before Junior High.[48]

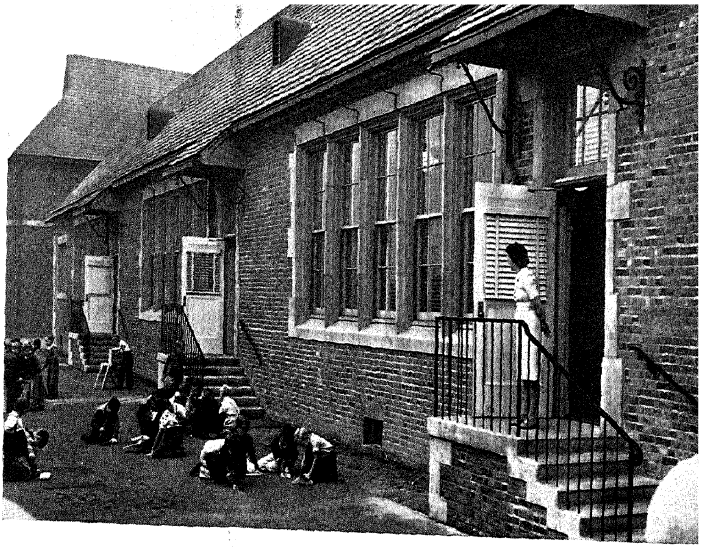
X. The Importance of the Classroom Library

By "classroom library" is meant the accumulation of books of all possible kinds which constitute the teacher's equipment for the phases of instruction which are carried on in the classroom. In general, the tendency since 1924 has been to extend the list of titles as widely as possible, particularly in the direction of informational or factual material in the social studies and in science. From 1927 to 1936[49] this trend became very strongly marked, while literary materials and work-type reading series fell into disfavor. In recent years, the work-type school reader, the workbook, and the inclusion of literary materials in reading series are prominent features of a modern reading program. Since recent educational literature has little to say regarding the composition of an ideal classroom library, it seems advisable to suggest the types of reading material which are essential in a modern program of education. To make the discussion helpful, let us take the case of a third-grade teacher. What types of reading material should she have available in her classroom?

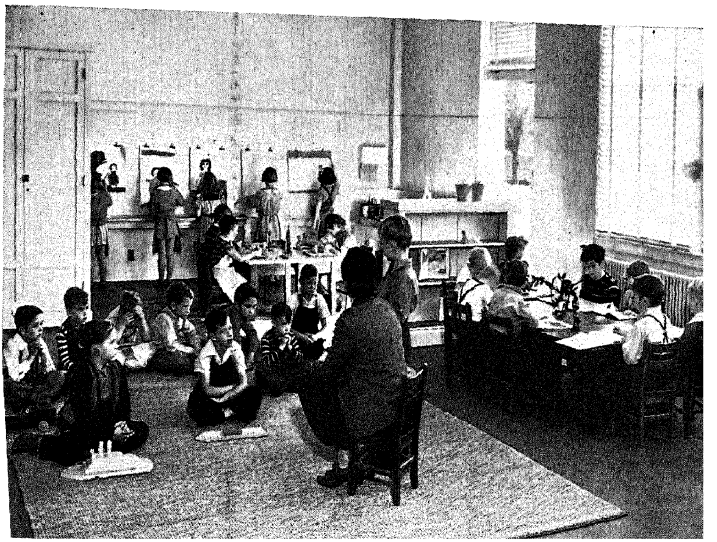
(*a*) The Second, Third, and Fourth Readers of the basal reading series used throughout the school. Since basal reading series are now back in favor, it may be assumed that (for example) the *Child Development Readers* or the *Alice and Jerry* series or the *New Basic Readers* or the *New Work-Play Series* are used throughout the school from the first to sixth grade inclusive. The third-grade teacher is entitled to the Third Reader (or readers) in the accepted basal series for her

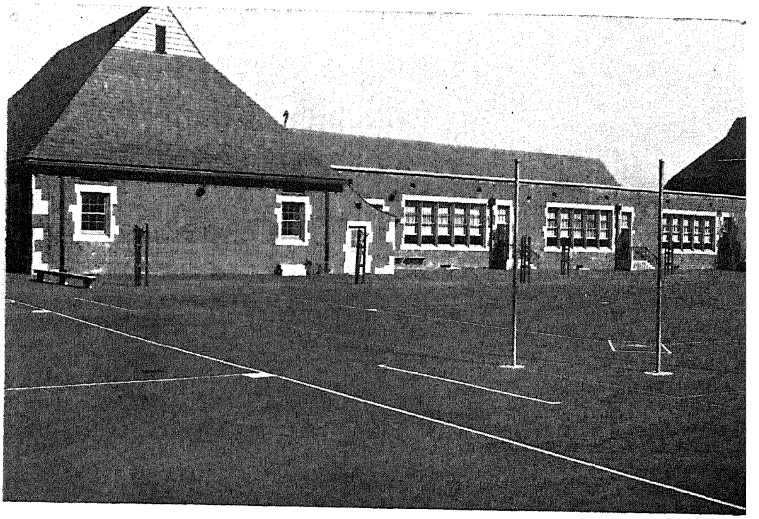
[48] *Ibid.*, pp. 17, 18.

[49] These dates are only approximate and should be interpreted as meaning "on or about this time."

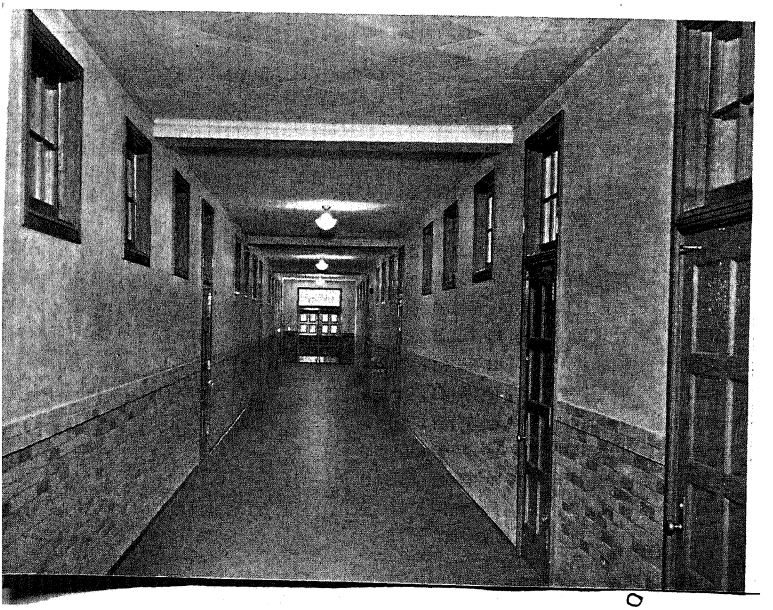


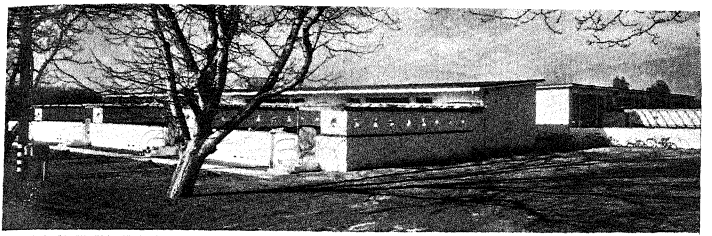
Plates 39 and 40. Exterior Classroom Wing and Classroom, 109th Street School, Los Angeles, California (Courtesy, Visual Education Section, Los Angeles City School District)

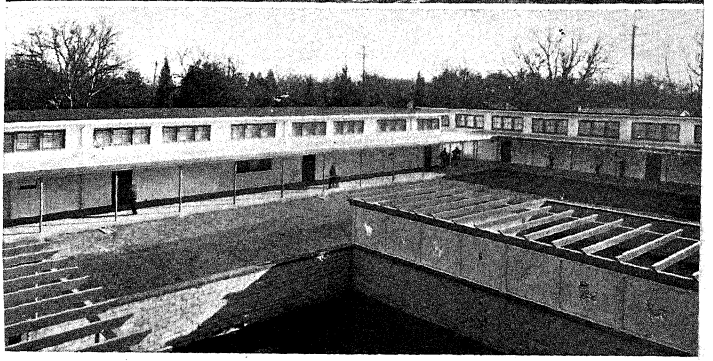


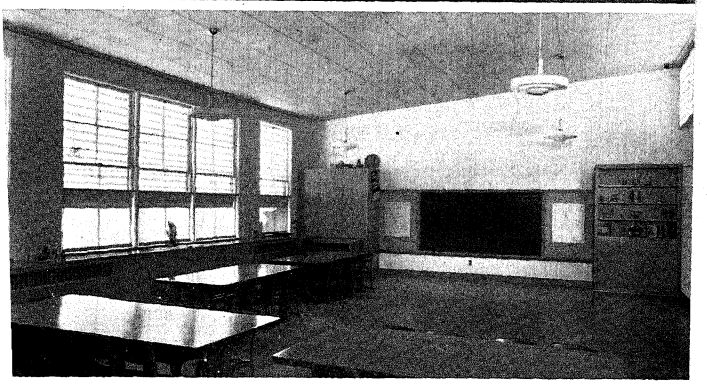


Plates 41 and 42. Playground and Corridor of the 109th Street School, Los Angeles, California (Courtesy, Visual Education Section, Los Angeles City School District)

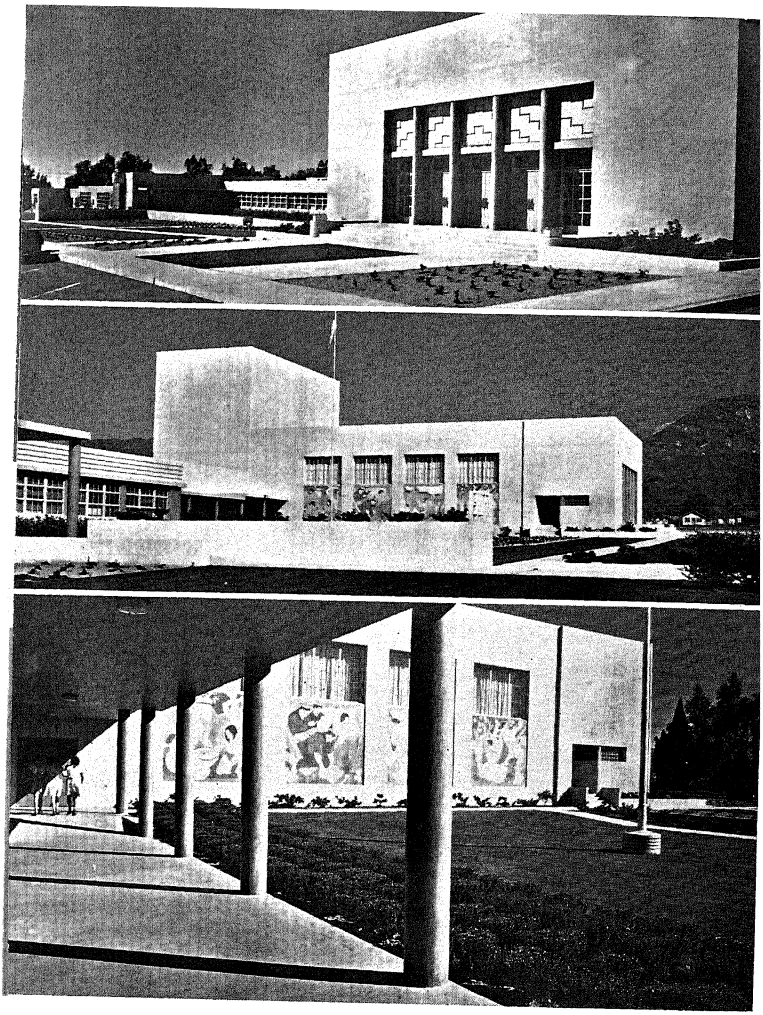




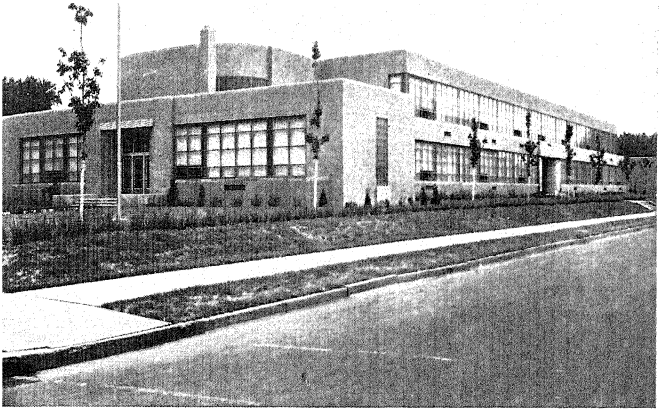




Plates 43, 44, 45. Front Elevation, Courtyard, and Classroom of the Jenny Tucker Baker School, Mt. View School District, California (Courtesy, Luckhaus)

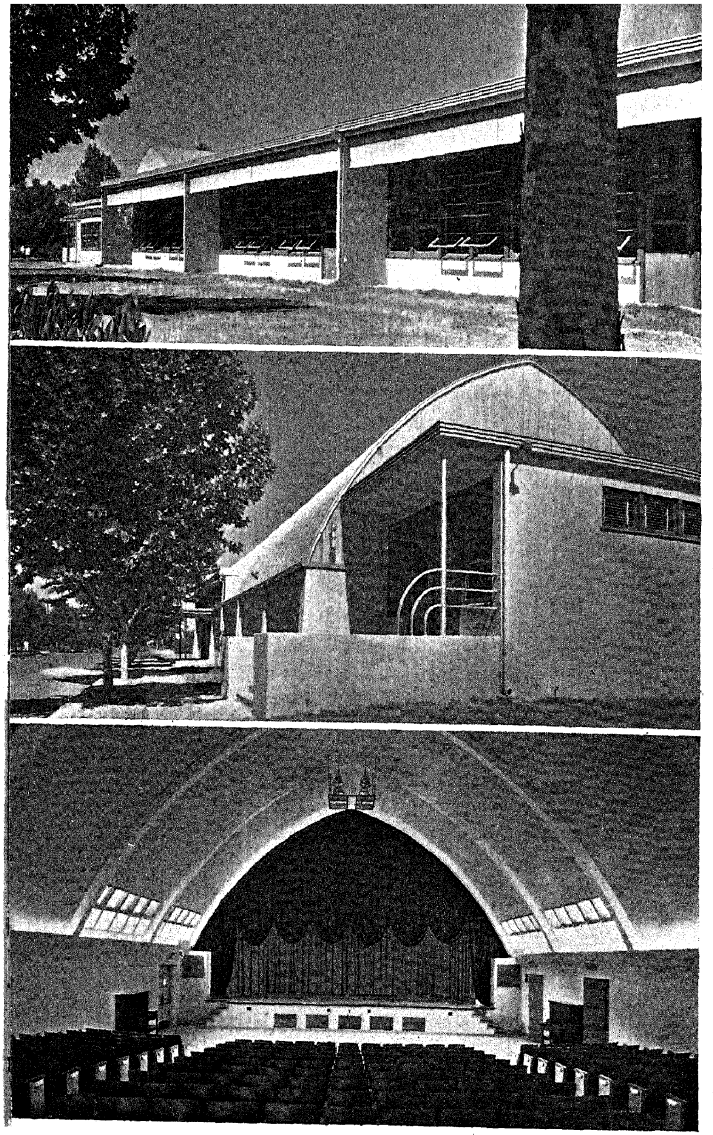


Plates 46, 47, 48. Front Elevation of Auditorium, Side Elevation of Auditorium, and Patio, Upland Elementary School, California (Courtesy, Eaton)

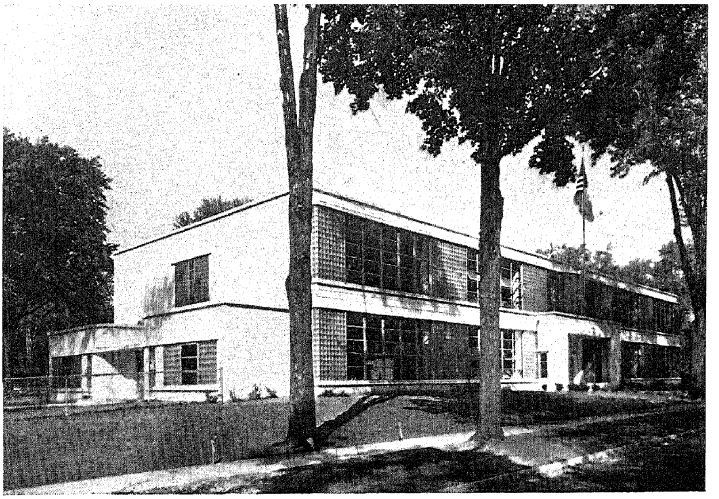


Plates 49 and 50. Front Elevation and Social Hall, Monroe School, Davenport, Iowa (Courtesy, Bawden)

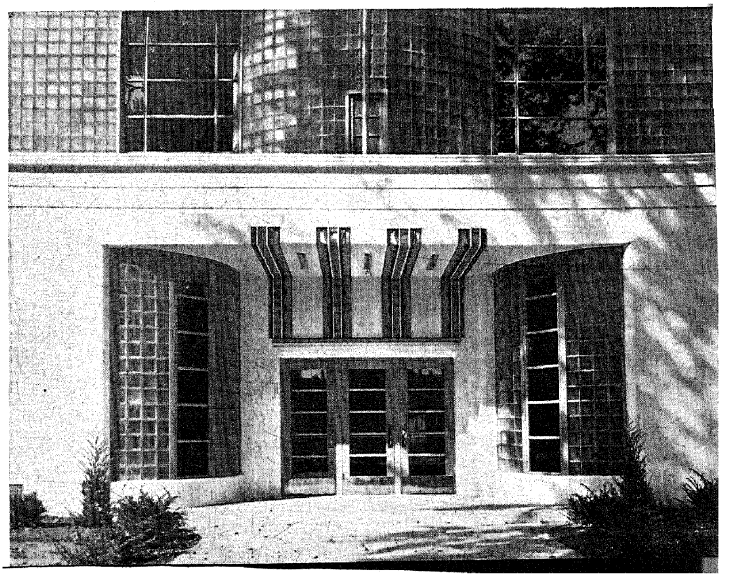


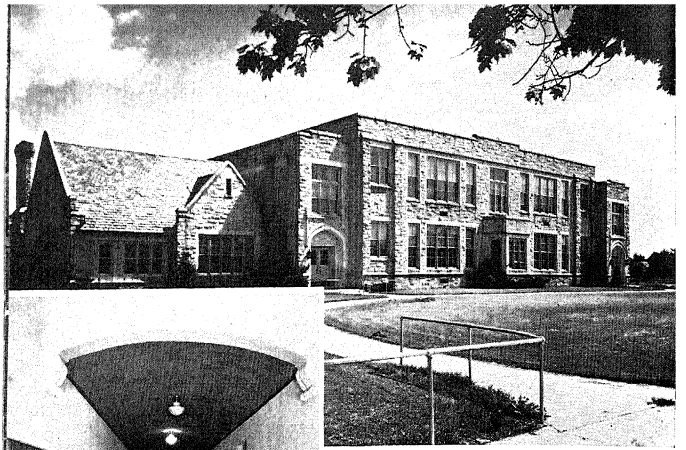


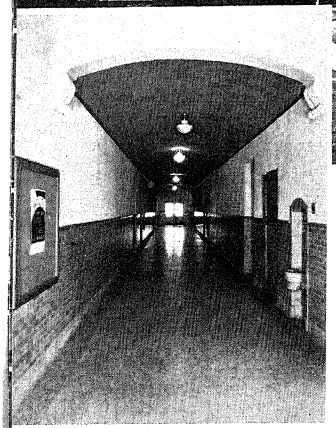
Plates 51, 52, 53. Exterior, Auditorium Wing, and Interior of Auditorium, Fowler Elementary School, Fowler, California (Courtesy, Esther Born)



Plates 54 and 55. Front Elevation and Entrance,
Farragut School, Bay City, Michigan

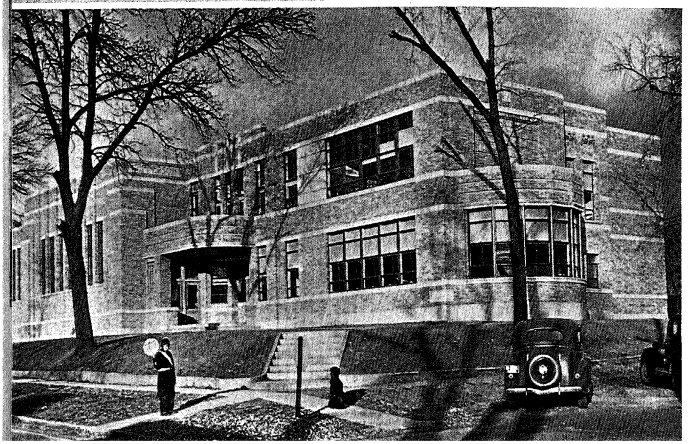






Plates 56 and 57. Front Elevation and Corridor, Fancher School, Mt. Pleasant, Michigan

Plate 58 (below). Front Elevation, Jefferson School, Creston, Iowa



children, together with a few Second Readers for possible review and a few Fourth Readers for very able readers. To say to the latter, "No, you can't see the Fourth Reader in this very delightful series because you have to wait until you are in the fourth grade," is to block the child's interest just when it is functioning at top speed, as well as to deny the importance of individual differences in children's abilities.

(*b*) At least ten copies of each book in another basal series not in use in the primary grades of the school for the sake of the less able readers in the room. This is for two reasons: First, the third-grade child will not willingly read in a primer to which he was exposed two years before and which he associates with failure; and second, because he will be more stimulated by new, fresh, attractive, and totally unfamiliar subject matter. In case the basal reading series in use throughout his school is one of the four series previouly mentioned, we could supply this third grade with pre-primers, primers, first, second, and third readers of *Easy Growth in Reading* or the same equipment from the *Unit-Activity series.*

(*c*) At least fifteen copies of some standard book in social studies from an accepted series of social-studies readers, as for example, *Centerville*, or *Without Machinery* from the *Everyday Life* series [50] by Paul Hanna and others.

(*d*) A set of good supplemental readers on any current unit of work in social studies. This would be exchanged with another teacher or with another school or be returned to a central library when the particular unit of work was completed.

(*e*) A set of science readers on the third-grade level.

(*f*) A set of health readers on the third-grade level.

(*g*) A set of language readers on the third-grade level.

(*h*) A set of literary readers on the third-grade level.

(*i*) As large a collection as funds and circumstances will permit of books on second-, third-, and fourth-grade levels which contain factual or informational materials on topics likely to interest children of seven, eight, and nine years of age. The principal should not forget that there is much material of this kind available in booklet form.

[50] Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company.

(*j*) As large a collection of recreational books in fiction, dramatics, and poetry on the second-, third-, and fourth-grade levels as are likely to appeal to third-grade children.

(*k*) As large a collection as possible of reference books likely to be needed in the classroom.

(*l*) At least ten copies of current numbers of *My Weekly Reader*[51] on the third-grade level, or a similar periodical.

Are we justified in using commercial material in our classroom library? Opinion is sharply divided on this point. Many members of boards of education shudder at the idea that children may see the word *Borden* on an attractive booklet about dairies for fear that some citizen-and-taxpayer will immediately accuse them of sponsoring a "racket" or "chiseling." All this is nonsense. The average elementary-school child pays no attention to the advertisement in the booklet nor to any advertising implications which are found in his reading materials; he is interested only in the content which has meaning to him at his particular age level. A very helpful exposition of this matter will be found in "The Use of Advertising Literature as Material for Study Reading,"[52] by Elisa Ann Neal, together with an excellent list of available sources of desirable materials.

Notes on Chapter Seven

1. Bruner, Herbert B., and others, *What Our Schools Are Teaching*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. The subtitle indicates the scope of this book: *An Analysis of Selected Courses of Study with Special Reference to Science, Social Science, and Industrial Arts.* The summaries will help the principal to check his curriculum in the light of "best present practice."

2. Odum, Howard, and Harry Estill Moore, *American Regionalism*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1938. The principal interested in developing a good social-studies program in the middle

[51] Columbus, Ohio: American Education Press.

[52] *Seventh Yearbook*, "Newer Practices in Reading in the Elementary School," Department of Elementary Principals (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1938), pp. 474-484.

grades will find here much to enlarge his understanding of the geography of the United States. Especially interesting chapters are: Chapter V, "Metropolitan Regionalism"; Chapter VI, "The Rural Nation"; Chapter VII, "Literary and Aesthetic Regionalism"; and Chapter XVIII, "Measures of American Regionalism."

3. Craig, Gerald S., *Science for the Elementary School Teacher.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1940. A good subtitle for this 551-page book could well be: "What the Elementary-School Teacher Needs to Know about Elementary Science and How to Get It over to Children." It is a library of fact and a manual of method. Required reading.

4. *Seventeenth Yearbook, Newer Practices in Reading for the Elementary School.* Department of Elementary School Principals. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1938. The presentation of the following topics will be found especially helpful: reading readiness; specialized reading techniques in the content subjects; diagnostic and remedial practices; the vexatious problem of providing reading materials in sufficient amount and variety; the use of the school and the public library as aids to reading; and the organization of schools and classes for better reading instruction.

5. Witty, Paul, and David Kopel, *Reading and the Educational Process.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1939. The authors present several explanations for the present slump in reading ability in the public schools, which has aroused caustic comment from parents and the press. They also present ways to improve the reading ability of children. The principal should study carefully the *Interest Inventory* which is described and discussed on pp. 56-60 inclusive. Consideration of the *Interest Inventory* may spur him on to a study of the interests of his own boys and girls, which in turn may lead to improvement in his reading program. He should not overlook one vitally important point made by Witty and Kopel in regard to the slow reader. While reading interests of the average and superior readers among elementary-school children seem to fall into fairly well-defined groups or categories at various age levels, the reading interests of the slow reader seem to be purely individualistic. In other words, each child who has reading disabilities presents a unique problem which can be solved only on the basis of his individual abilities, needs, and interests, proving once again that each child follows his own growth pattern.

6. Whipple, Gertrude, and others, *Reading in the Intermediate Grades, Ninth Research Bulletin* of the National Conference on Research in English. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1941. This is a pioneer work opening up new avenues to the conquest of the reading problem. Required reading.

7. Treut, Alvina, and others, *They All Want to Write.* Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1939. An exposition of practical writing (skills and techniques) and personal writing (freedom of expression) as done by elementary-school children in Bronxville, New York, under expert teaching. Required reading.

8. *Fortieth Yearbook, Art in American Life and Education.* National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1941. This is the most complete reference book available at the present time in the field of public-school art. Especially helpful are the chapters by Thomas Munro, Curator of Education of the Cleveland Museum of Art.

9. Nicholas, Florence W., and others, *Art Activities in the Modern School.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. This excellent book attempts to answer these questions: What does art mean to Jack Clark in the first grade, or to Grace Smith in the sixth grade, or to their big brothers and sisters in the high school? Especially helpful are Unit Three, The Techniques of the Art Lesson; Unit Four, Creative Work in Illustration; Unit Five, Design Activities; Unit Six, Industrial Art For Social Understandings; and Unit Seven, Color Experiences.

10. Cole, Natalie Robinson, *The Arts in the Classroom.* New York: The John Day Company, 1940. Mrs. Cole tells step by step how a gifted classroom teacher helped her elementary-school children to find means and ways of self-expression. Required reading.

11. Connette, Earl, "Why Music Falters in the Intermediate Grades." *American School Board Journal,* December, 1939. Connette sets up a series of problems arising in the music program in the middle grades and "finds remedies readily available."

12. Coe, Margaret F., "What We Do About Reading," *Progressive Education,* March, 1940. Coe sets up eight objectives in the teaching of reading and discusses helpfully the methods required in reaching them.

13. The principal interested in the "non-oral" method of teaching as followed in the Chicago Schools may find information in the following sources:

McDade, James E., and Mary C. Gillies, "The Why and How of Non-Oral Reading," *Childhood Education,* April, 1940.

McDade, James E., "An Hypothesis for Non-Oral Reading," *Journal of Educational Research,* March, 1937.

"The Chicago Plan of Teaching Beginning Reading," *Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools.* Chicago: Board of Education, 1937-1938, pp. 32-44.

14. Malcolmson, Anne, *Yankee Doodle's Cousins.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941. Mrs. Malcolmson, who teaches

eight-to-thirteen-year-olds, found in her teaching a dearth of American folk tales written expressly for them. So she has gathered together twenty-seven folk tales from every part of our country and written them in language that the middle-age children can understand. Classic tales have been cut, rather than edited, and the robust humor of these folk stories has not been diminished.

15. Pyne, Mabel, *The Little History of the United States* and *The Little Geography of the United States.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940 and 1941. *The Little History of the United States* is a March-of-Time that describes our country's history, with brief text and bright thumbnail pictures, from the time that Columbus went to see Isabella to the time of the Clipper planes. *The Little Geography of the United States* makes our country as real as it would seem to any traveler through it. Children can see the miles of wheat on the Central Plains, the canyons and mountains of the West, miners at work in Pennsylvania. Besides the small text illustrations, there are in this second book full pages in color that give the feeling of different parts of the country. Both books are for children in the primary grades.

16. Petersham, Maud and Miska, *An American A. B. C.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. This beautifully illustrated book tells in alphabetical form some of the facts that every child needs to know about his own country.

17. Gavian, Ruth Wood, *Education for Economic Competence in Grades I to VI.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. This highly significant book rests upon three major assumptions: (1) that education for economic competence is an essential part of the education of children, (2) that this phase of education must start in the elementary school, and (3) that the success or failure of the movement depends upon selecting proper aims and goals, upon securing proper materials, and upon devising the most helpful techniques and methods of instruction.

CHAPTER EIGHT

◇

The Principal as Efficiency Expert

AN EFFICIENCY EXPERT is one who makes both continuous and periodic surveys to find ways of avoiding waste and in order to increase output and reduce costs and increase profits. The principal plays the rôle of efficiency expert when he tries to discover new and better ways of doing old things, to discover new possibilities, to improve his techniques, and to be in a position at any time to measure outcomes in terms of the objectives which he has set as goals.

The publication in 1937 of *Appraising the Elementary School Program, the Sixteenth Yearbook of the Department of the Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association,*[1] shows that the 22,000 elementary-school principals in the United States take seriously the responsibility of being efficiency experts. The purpose of this chapter is not to present a synopsis of the *Sixteenth Yearbook*, but to utilize it to show trends in school appraisal as evidenced by elementary-school principals.

I. General Principles in School Appraisal

We may begin by noting the areas in which appraisals may be made with profit to a school, such as:

organization
administration and supervisory procedures

[1] Washington, D.C.: National Education Association.

curriculum
method of learning and teaching
socializing experiences
measurement of pupil-progress
efficiency of the teachers
equipment

The following general principles should be kept in mind by the principal:

1. School appraisals should be carried on continuously.

> The practice of making a comprehensive survey of the schools only once every five or ten years, with no effort to obtain pertinent evidence between surveys, is quite inadequate. So far as the time and size of the staff permit, information concerning the strong and weak points of the school program should be collected during each year. At least once a year, these findings should be summarized and used as a basis for improving the program.[2]

2. All appraisals must be made with reference to standards of some kind.
3. Every community has a right to establish its own standards for school appraisal.
4. There should be close agreement between the instruments which measure the attainment of the accepted objectives and the objectives.
5. A local appraisal should be checked by the results of similar appraisals made elsewhere by competent workers.

What objectives should be set as goals to be reached at the end of the sixth grade? One answer will be found in the writer's *The Teacher in the Modern Elementary School.*[3] Another answer will be found in the objectives set up by Powers: [4]

1. Essential abilities: (*a*) to read with understanding any

[2] *The Sixteenth Yearbook, op. cit.*, p. 235.

[3] Robert Hill Lane, *The Teacher in the Modern Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941), pp. 5-7.

[4] Laversia L. Powers, "Criteria for Judging the Success of a School Program," *The Sixteenth Yearbook, op. cit.*, pp. 240-247.

material within the experience level of the pre-adolescent child; (*b*) to use with accuracy and understanding the fundamental operations in arithmetic; (*c*) to express ideas correctly, forcibly, and in an interesting manner through oral and written language, line and color, bodily rhythm, music, and handicraft; (*d*) to interpret many phases of everyday life through the application of historical, geographical, and scientific concepts, understandings, and facts.

2. Basic skills: (*a*) in muscular control and co-ordination; (*b*) in the use of books; (*c*) in the use of materials and tools of the arts and sciences, etc.

3. Desirable attitudes: (*a*) toward work and play; (*b*) toward other people; (*c*) toward social institutions.

4. Appropriate social habits: friendliness; good manners; trustworthiness; self-control and poise; leadership and followship, etc.

5. Suitable interests: in recreational activities; in vocational possibilities; in avocational pursuits.

6. Good taste: as shown in the selection of color, line, and form in dress, decoration, etc.

7. A well-balanced personality: mental and emotional health; stability, cheerfulness, open-mindedness; ability to compensate in socially acceptable ways for personal deficiencies and failures.

Powers makes an excellent point near the end of her article:

> Let us try to appraise the total personality of the child. Only by doing this can we tell whether the school program has been well balanced or lopsided. We may examine separately the abilities, skills, and attitudes of children in the same way that we may analyze a room, considering first its rug, then its curtains, and so on. However, the curtains are not of much value without the rug, and the value of the rug depends upon the rest of the furniture. The piecemeal analysis of a child is just as inadequate as the piecemeal analysis of a room.[5]

It will be well, therefore, for the principal to meet with his teachers and a few intelligent parents to examine the objec-

[5] *The Sixteenth Yearbook, op. cit.*, p. 247.

tives to be reached by children when they leave the elementary school to enter the junior high school, to restate the objectives to meet changing conditions as need arises, and to check on the methods to be used in reaching the objectives.

II. Selected Problems in School Appraisal

The problems presented below are indicative of the alertness of elementary-school principals to specific needs and situations. It is to be understood that the answers to these problems are the author's and are not necessarily the answers offered by writers in the *Sixteenth Yearbook,* except where specific citations are made.

1. *What do we mean by the phrase "pupil development"?*

Coxe defines it as including "not only those academic learnings which take place through contact with books and teachers, but also the growth of personality and character traits, attitudes, and appreciations which depend upon the whole social and cultural situation in which the child is placed." [6]

2. *What types of administrative organization contribute most effectively to child development in the sense of "the whole child"?*

Obviously, the traditional 8-4 plan contributes least, as it was based upon the idea of "minimum essentials" as the goal of an eight-year elementary school. Its standards of accomplishment were stiff enough to eliminate the undesirable and permit promotion of a highly selected group of children to a purely academic high school. The secondary school led in turn into college, where the "classics" still further eliminated those who could not qualify for the learned professions. The adoption of the 6-3-3 plan marked a long step ahead in our educational thinking. Division of schools into the elementary school, the junior high school, and the senior high school was

[6] Warren H. Coxe, "Basic Considerations in Appraising a School Organization," *The Sixteenth Yearbook, op. cit.,* p. 255.

a recognition of the importance of three distinct levels of child development. The 6-4-4 plan offers an improvement and a refinement on the 6-3-3 plan because it (*a*) lengthens the junior-high-school period by an entire year, and (*b*) bridges the gap between high school and college through a combination of the eleventh and twelfth grades on the one hand and the freshman and sophomore years of college on the other.

A further refinement on and improvement of the 6-4-4 plan relates to the six years of elementary-school life. The modern point of view is that the public school must assume as part of its responsibility the education of children in the nursery school and kindergarten as well as in the regular elementary-school grades. To break down the barriers between the administrative units called nursery school, kindergarten, pre-primary, etc., it is proposed that they be gathered together into a Lower Elementary School, which cares for the "two's to eight's," and an Upper Elementary School, which provides for the "eight's to twelve's." The complete administrative organization, therefore, looks like this:

(*a*) *The Lower Elementary School.* In terms of ages — two to eight years; in terms of units — nursery school, kindergarten, pre-primary, first, second, and third grades.

(*b*) *The Upper Elementary School.* In terms of ages — eight to twelve years; in terms of units — third, fourth, fifth, and sixth grades.

(*c*) *The Peoples' High School.* In terms of ages — twelve to sixteen years; in terms of units — seventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth grades.

(*d*) *The Peoples' College.* In terms of ages — sixteen to twenty years; in terms of units — eleventh and twelfth grades, freshman and sophomore years.

3. *What types of special classes are needed in a modern elementary-school organization?*

Part of the answer is easy; part is extremely difficult. Certainly, special classes must be provided for (*a*) crippled children, (*b*) blind children, (*c*) children with partial vision,

(*d*) deaf children, (*e*) children with impaired hearing, (*f*) feeble-minded children (between 50 and 70 I.Q.), (*g*) pretubercular children, and (*h*) children suffering from malnutrition. The burden of caring for these children should not be laid upon the classroom teacher. From here on, the path is not so easy. When is a "discipline case," a "problem child," so much of a case and so difficult a problem that he must be segregated? When is a "maladjusted child" with respect to school achievement so badly out of step that he must be put into a special class? To what extent are we harming a brilliant child by keeping him with a regular class, and should we place him in a class of and for superior children? No hard-and-fast rule will ever settle these questions, but certain considerations may prove helpful.

Whether to segregate a "bad" boy or a "bad" girl depends upon the teacher's definition of "bad," which is likely to be conditioned by her training, experience, personality, and prejudices. In general, a child who has a job in school which seems worth while to him, who is interested in working it out, and who has the energy and persistence to carry it through to a successful conclusion, is not apt to become "bad." That Satan finds mischief still for idle hands to do, is as true today as when it was first written, and half the battle of righteousness depends upon arranging a classroom environment which is rich in experiences for children. Beyond that point, the teacher has little justification for asking to have a child banished into the outer darkness because of a slight tiff between pupil and teacher. A little more patience on the teacher's part, a little more sympathy, and a better understanding of the personal problems of childhood will solve most disciplinary problems. There are, to be sure, children who are anti-social to such a degree that their presence in the classroom is a menace to the peace and safety of the members of the group with which they are associated. In that case, segregation in a "welfare" or "adjustment" room may be justified.

Occasionally a ward of the Juvenile Court is placed in a

classroom to give him a second chance to adjust himself to society in a normal social group. The teacher feels that she must give him all the help possible, but is in doubt as to how far that help must extend. There is a golden rule to follow: every assistance may be given, provided the rights of the group as a whole are not invaded. Children are not unintelligent; they resent having the teacher "make a fuss over a bad boy," and they wonder why they should be "good" when being "bad" brings the offender so much attention. Here the teacher needs to be diplomatic and tactful. Her help to the child who is being rehabilitated needs to be subtle and unobtrusive lest he be made the target for unfavorable group action.

Again, in meeting the problem of children who are below standard in achievement in school subjects, the solution will depend upon the teacher's philosophy of education. The very formal, traditional teacher still believes in her heart of hearts that all children in her classroom must be "up to standard" and that a child's failure to reach the norm is sufficient reason for placing him in a special room, where by individual instruction and continuous drill his deficiencies may be corrected. If the principal has been placed in charge of a school where this point of view is generally accepted by teachers and parents, he has no choice but to establish an adjustment class to meet the hospital cases which the school is constantly manufacturing through its failure to recognize the fact that children differ in abilities and so in academic achievement. The principal has a real task ahead of him — the slow, gradual conversion of a group of teachers to a more modern point of view.

In a school where teachers recognize the spread of abilities which is always found where children are brought together into groups, the daily classroom program provides a variety of experiences in which all children can profitably engage and from which children may select experiences which fall within their powers. No longer do we hold to the idea that the graded public-school system is designed to force the individual pupil to meet rigid requirements or "fail" or be "kept back" and so become "retarded." Rather, the modern teacher expects a reasonable

range of abilities in her classroom, accepts the fact gracefully, and provides for it through her instructional program. The term "expectancy age" reflects this point of view – it indicates in terms of grade-placement what a child may be expected to achieve in the light of his chronological age and of his intelligence. The child must be required to live up to his ability, but he will not be asked to live up to a standard arbitrarily set for the "average" child, a creature never to be met in real life and existing only in the statistician's imagination.

In the modern school, therefore, there should be no occasion to place physically normal children in special rooms for training in academic work. The presence of such a room in an elementary school professing a modern philosophy of education is a tacit admission that theory and practice are not consistent in that particular school. A good working rule for the classroom teacher is this: *In school subjects where pupil achievement is measurable by standard achievement tests, a range of three years is normal and is to be accepted as such.* For example, the teacher of a B 4 class may expect the range of results in achievement in reading ability to extend from a grade placement of 2.5 (a year and one half below 4.0) to 5.5 (a year and one half above 4.0).

What shall we do with our "super-brights," the children whose intelligence quotients range from 125 upward? There are two opposed points of view – first, that the only efficient way to train leaders is to place them with other children of equal ability and give them a school program consonant with their talents; second, that so long as we believe that the school is primarily an institution for practice in democratic living, the segregation of its leaders apart from the classroom groups of which it is composed is violating the principle on which the school is organized.

Which of these two courses the principal shall follow in meeting this problem depends entirely on the philosophy of education held in his school. If, as we have pointed out in the previous section, there is little or no recognition of the significance of individual differences in children and no at-

tempt to provide a classroom program of rich experiences for all children, the principal will be well advised to place the children with high I.Q.'s in a special room under the care of the best teacher obtainable. If, on the contrary, his teachers have the modern point of view in education, the bright children will be needed as leaders in their several classroom groups, and their teachers will use them wisely for that purpose, providing in the meantime for the full development of the bright child's personal abilities and capacities.

It would be nice if each of us, as adults, could live his life in a world which was homogeneous with respect to the class of people with whom we like to associate. Unfortunately, each of us lives in a world that is very heterogeneous — tall and short, thick and thin, "dumb" and smart, rich and poor, pleasant and "ornery," unselfish and self-seeking — and we might as well train our children how to live in such a world and adjust to it without losing their personal integrity.

4. *What type of grouping shall I have in my school?*

This question has been touched upon in an earlier chapter,[7] in the author's *The Progressive Elementary School,*[8] and in *The Teacher in the Modern Elementary School.*[9] It is assumed that the principal of a modern, up-to-date elementary school has a defensible philosophy of education and that his philosophy of education will determine the manner in which he groups the children in his school. Coxe [10] points out that if one establishes groups solely on the basis of intellectual ability, one type of grouping is bound to occur; and that if one takes into account the social and emotional development of children, quite a different form of grouping becomes inevitable. He raises another question: Shall children select the groups with which they wish to be associated, or shall they be placed by principal and teachers? The answer is twofold: the child's own stage of development at a given period

[7] See pages 154-155.
[8] Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938, chapter II.
[9] Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941, chapter III.
[10] *The Sixteenth Yearbook, op. cit.*, p. 258.

in his growth will determine in what class or group he will be placed, and this, of course, must be done by the principal and teachers jointly, after thorough investigation of all the facts which can be assembled about him, plus very careful observation of the child in all his modes of behavior. Then, once he is assigned to a group, he will, inside that group, associate himself voluntarily with a small subgroup composed of children to whom he is attracted. These voluntary groupings within the larger group we call the class or grade is one of the most significant and delightful features of a thoroughly modern school.

Coxe mentions another administrative problem, that of promotional policies, which have been discussed in an earlier chapter of this book.[11] It may be necessary to add to that discussion by stating again that while the pattern of children's growth from birth to adulthood is fairly uniform for children in the mass, each child follows a growth pattern of his own. His "timetable" for arriving at expected growth levels is a highly individualistic affair, and to formulate an administrative policy based on the idea that each child must complete his elementary timetable in exactly six years "or else," is to make oneself supremely ridiculous. If, on the other hand, one assumes that the end of the sixth grade and the completion of the pre-adolescent stage of development are simultaneous, one has a basis for promotion which is biologically sound. The child will be allowed as much or as little time for his elementary-school life as he needs, dependent upon the various rates of his growth in those many ways in which growth is possible.

A method of grouping followed at the Ninth Street School, Los Angeles, may be described by way of illustration.

This is a large city school in the wholesale business section, with its accompaniment of "marginal" area houses, apartment houses, flats, and all the other conditions which characterize the transition of a former residence section into a business zone. The school population is naturally in a condition of

[11] See pages 155-157.

constant change, "Arkies," "Okies," transient workers, Japanese, Chinese, Mexicans, and a scattering of Gypsies making up the school rolls.

The principal, Miss Matilda Bardenstein, is a genius at organization and, refusing to be bound by traditional methods, has created a type of school which is as effective as it is unusual. The basis of grouping is the social maturity of the children, and the basis of organization is the division of the school into Lower, Middle, and Upper Schools as follows:

THE LOWER SCHOOL

Group Number	*Age Range*	*Median Age*
1	5.5 – 6.1	5.9
2	6.3 – 7.4	6.1
3	5.11 – 6.7	6.1
4	6.4 – 8.8	7.0
5	6.4 – 8.8	7.0
6	9.1 – 7.0	8.0
7	6.9 – 9.2	8.2
8	7.4 – 9.7	8.5
9	7.1 – 9.1	8.5

The Middle School. The unique feature of the Middle School is that a child on his way from the Lower to the Upper School must pass through one of four transition groups, in which he stays until he is found able to carry on successfully the work of the Upper School.

Group Number	*Age Range*	*Median Age*
10	7.9 – 9.0	8.4
11	8.2 – 11.5	9.6
12	7.5 – 13.0	8.9
13	8.6 – 11.6	9.8

THE UPPER SCHOOL

Group Number	*Age Range*	*Median Age*
14	8.7 – 11.11	9.11
15	9.1 – 11.6	10.4
16	9.11 – 12.11	11.7
17	9.5 – 12.5	11.0
18	10.2 – 13.7	11.7
19	9.8 – 12.5	11.0
20	10.8 – 13.1	12.7
21	10.5 – 13.6	12.3

When the child enters the kindergarten (Group 1), his health needs receive special attention. He is examined by the school doctor, checked for eye, ear, heart, lung, and general conditions; glasses are provided when needed; tonsils or adenoids are removed; milk and cod-liver oil are supplied; and every effort is made to start him off in the first grade (Group 2) with the best possible chance of success.

No tests are given in the Lower School. All grouping is done according to the teachers' judgment, which is based on an estimate of the child's social and emotional development, his physical and expressive abilities. No report cards are given, and there is no specified time for changes in groupings. Any child may be moved whenever his progress warrants it. The groups in general, however, keep the same teacher for one full year and the same teacher throughout the day. She supervises all activities, including recreation, rest, and lunch. Thus every child has the fullest possible opportunity to orient himself during his first four years in school. (Kindergarten – third grade.)

The end of this period does not, however, necessarily come exactly at the end of four years. It comes when the child passes from the stage of complete individualism and begins to be somewhat aware of others; when, that is, he shows signs of becoming increasingly conscious of group relationships. At this point he passes on to one of the transition groups in the Middle School.

At Ninth Street the Middle School comprises four rooms on the upper floor. Here the sorting and weeding out process begins. Group tests are given, and more emphasis is placed on the academic phases of school work. Children with subnormal mentality never get beyond this point; they are tested and then transferred to a school organized to meet their needs, although they are not cut off from school and neighborhood activities. A bus picks them up at the Ninth Street school grounds at eight o'clock, returning them to the same place at two-thirty in the afternoon. Thus they still feel the school as the center of their neighborhood and are there to take part in playground activities.

Classes going into the Upper School are selected groups, organized so as to work together, so far as possible, right through the sixth grade. Rapid learners are grouped together, as are the medium learners and the slow-learning children. This is not, however, the old *x*, *y*, *z* system of grouping. It is not based on intelligence alone; additional factors are considered, which perhaps differentiate it from any other method of organization.

Scholastic ability is, of course, considered; it is determined not only by intelligence tests but also by standardized achievement tests. Equally important are physical ability, judged by the school doctor and nurse, together with emotional and social development rated according to the judgment of all teachers who know the child. All these factors taken together determine the group into which the child will go on leaving the transition period.

Hence, the Upper School is composed of groups who can not only work together academically, but who are suited to each other socially and are at approximately the same stage of emotional and physical development. Here also there are no formal grades. Anyone may be moved on at any time when he outgrows his group. Each child is an individual, with full incentive to work up to his capacity. No lagging is permitted; it is insisted that the child shall work to capacity at all times. This is checked by frequent achievement tests.

With no subnormal mentalities in the Upper School, strict requirements can be enforced for entrance into the junior high school. While it is assumed that physical defects have been corrected, health is again strongly emphasized in the sixth grade, with a complete check-up by the doctor and nurse. It is also required that the child shall have acquired dependability and a certain feeling for good citizenship and what it means. This is the organization on the academic side. In addition, the school takes responsibility for public relations and for training in the use of leisure time.

In such a program the understanding and co-operation of the parents is a necessity. This is worked for in every contact

with them and with the outside public. In addition, at least one day of the school year is given over to the fathers and mothers. No general open house is held, but each group with its teacher selects a day and sends invitations home. Parents and older relatives are asked to spend the day with the children at their work; they are free to observe and ask questions and discuss problems with the teacher. Later, refreshments and entertainment are provided.

Every class in the Upper School has half an hour a day devoted to recreational training. The word "physical education" is not used, because as such it has no separate and isolated place in this organization. The children are trained in the use and care of their bodies through the health program and in connection with their regular classroom work. Their playground period is given over to training for the use of leisure. This is done by a combination of fostering natural interests and insisting on an effort to learn new games and skills. The program must be kept very flexible in order to pick up and emphasize whatever constructive lines of interest may appear. The general aim is to build enthusiasm for such games and sports as will remain interesting into and through adult life. No time is spent on activities solely for exercise; if a child has skill and strong interest in any active game, he will get his exercise. Corrective work would be desirable, but is impossible under the set-up imposed from outside the school.

The recess and noon periods are taken up partly by organized tournament games; part of the grounds is at all times left open for free play. Observation of the children during this free-play time provides an index to the success of the recreational training.

After school a well-lighted, well-supervised playground is open from 3 P.M. until 9:30 P.M. It is equipped for all the games used in the program of recreational training: basketball, baseball, badminton, handball, tennis, volleyball, tetherball, deck tennis, shuffleboard. Tournaments are arranged for the children in the afternoon; for league games and community

young peoples' clubs in the evening. In the playground room, crafts, dramatics, and story hours are given. The recreation program serves as one medium through which delinquency has been eliminated in the school population and greatly reduced in the surrounding neighborhood.

The organization sketched is made possible only by certain rearrangements of personnel. The teacher load is increased slightly in order to allow a full-time supervisor of welfare, attendance, and nutrition; a full-time recreation teacher; and a part-time counselor to do the necessary transition and upper-school testing. Another absolute necessity is the full co-operation of every teacher in the building, which is achieved only by their understanding of the program and the realization of their individual responsibility for it. An important factor on the administrative side is the placing of each person in the job to which he or she is best suited and then trusting him to carry it out in his own way. The Ninth Street School shows what can be done in a large elementary school where the principal has vision, insight, executive ability, and the courage to strike out on her own regardless of tradition and the inertia of school executives.

5. *Shall subject-matter topics be drawn up for the entire elementary-school period and then be broken down so as to assign a certain portion of the whole to each grade?*

Let us take a specific instance. Granting that the course of study in elementary-school arithmetic shall include the mastery of the fundamental processes, shall long division be assigned to B 4, A 4, or B 5? There can be no final answer to this or any other similar problem until we know more than we know now as to levels of child growth and development. Very careful investigation, study, and research will be necessary over an extended period of time before we can say with any assurance, "Here is the spot where this topic should be taught." The tentative answer might be expressed in a statement somewhat as follows:

(*a*) The big job of the teacher is to know as much as pos-

sible about each of her pupils. She needs to know each child's history from birth to the time he becomes a member of her group, gathering data from conversation with his parents and with other teachers with whom he has lived, from school records, and from her own daily observation. From all these sources she is able to plot with some degree of accuracy his particular growth pattern.

(*b*) From her study of other children, from observation and visiting, from her professional training and professional reading, she will have gained a fairly good grasp of the instructional materials likely to be successful with children at various stages of their development.

(*c*) Presumably she has a course of study for the entire elementary school (not merely for that little part of it called a "grade") which indicates the experiences which elementary children need to have to develop properly.

From this long list, she selects those experiences which a given child needs as determined by her findings in (*a*), (*b*), and (*c*) above and uses these instructional materials to assist her in making the chosen experiences meaningful to the child.

The one basic fact which the teacher needs to keep in mind at all times is this: With respect to any specific, desirable learning, there is a time in each child's life when that learning can take place with minimum effort and maximum effectiveness. There is only one person who can determine that golden moment, and that is the teacher herself.[12]

Coxe sums it up very adequately:

> There is nothing inherent in subject-matter to form a sound basis for instructional organization. Such organization, like the grouping of pupils, should grow out of pupil needs. If pupil organization recognizes pupil differences, instructional organization should unquestionably conform.[13]

[12] The principal's part in this matter has been previously discussed, pp. 138-139.

[13] *The Sixteenth Yearbook, op. cit.*, p. 261.

6. *Should school subjects be taught separately or "integrated" or "fused"?*

The educational pendulum swung sharply toward integration after 1936 as a by-product of the modern treatment of the social studies, which combines geography, history, civics, "morals and manners," and the social amenities into an integral whole. The unit-of-work program has often been so administered as to lay upon a given unit, "Japan," "Pioneer Life," "Transportation," or "Communication," for example, the burden of providing all the knowledge, skills, habits, attitudes, and appreciations which the course of study held desirable for a group of children at a given grade level. If Pioneer Life was the major topic for discussion in the social-studies period, if children were led to study physiography, geography, weather, plant and animal life as related to the Pioneers in the science period, and so on, the subject matter met in the day's work was "integrated." If all subject-matter divisions disappeared entirely from the daily program and Pioneer Life was studied through a series of problems throughout the entire school day, and if these problems cut sharply across all subject-matter lines, the materials of instruction were said to be "fused."

Experience in recent years has taught us that a unit of work is a faithful steed and will carry us far, but it does have some limitations. Materials of instruction in social studies and science, with some concomitant learnings in the language arts, the fine arts, the practical arts, and very occasionally in music, can be integrated successfully and fused at times, depending upon the experiences in hand. But to maintain that one can squeeze needed specific skills — learning to write a decent hand, learning to spell the "demons," learning to read a paragraph to get the central thought, learning how to multiply a fraction by a fraction — out of a single unit of work, say "Life on the Western Plains" — is pure poppycock. There are certain school subjects which are best taught in and for themselves, and to teach them thus is to teach them economically, with least effort and most success.

7. *What shall we do with the "young-and-brights"?*

There is no more puzzling problem in elementary education than the very young, very bright, and very socially immature children who have entered kindergarten at four years and six months, chronological age, and have been pushed on by ambitious parents so as to finish the sixth grade at the earliest possible moment. A study [14] reported by Partington throws considerable light upon the problem. While the small number of children studied by Partington justifies only tentative conclusions, it is possible that the following trends are indicated:

In the group of children who entered the first grade at ages between five years, no months, and five years, five months, 55 per cent of them made a good showing in school achievement, as based upon combined test results in reading and arithmetic.

Approximately 42 per cent of the children made a showing in achievement less than their intelligence would lead one to expect of them.

Of the group of children who entered the first grade at ages between six years, six months, and six years, eleven months, approximately 65 per cent of them lived up to expectancy as regards intelligence and made a good showing in school achievement; only 5 per cent failed to do as well as their intelligence indicated they should; and approximately 30 per cent actually made better scores in achievement tests in reading and arithmetic than their intelligence would appear to predict. In other words, 95 per cent of the children entering the first grade at six and one-half years of age to nearly seven years of age "made good" in reading and arithmetic in their later elementary-school history as measured by standardized tests in reading and arithmetic.

From this it would appear that the parent who enters his child in the first grade when the child's chronological age is

[14] H. M. Partington, "The Relation Between First Grade Entrance Age and Success in the First Six Grades," *The Sixteenth Yearbook, op. cit.*, pp. 298-302.

between six years, six months, and seven years, no months (or in the kindergarten between five years, six months, and six years, no months) is giving that child his best chance in school as measured by achievement in school subjects, defining "best chance" as "highest probability."

The parent of a "young-but-bright" child who is entered at an early age in the first grade is giving that child a slightly better than even chance (56 to 44) to reach success in later elementary-school years in achievement in school subjects.

No sensible parent would accept these statements as indicating more than possibilities. Much more needs to be done with far larger groups of children and in many forms of school experience other than in academic subjects, before accurate generalization may safely be made. However, the principal has an opportunity to educate the fathers and mothers of young children to see that while it must be admitted that in many cases the "young-and-bright" may hold his own and do acceptable work, he would do better if he were older. With many children it is not a matter of success versus failure; rather it is a matter of fair success from entering school young against outstanding success from entering school with greater maturity.

8. *How effective is the school's health program?*

Probably not very effective in most cases. The conventional pattern is (*a*) the school physician makes very hurried, superficial examinations of as many children in as short a time as possible, once a semester, (*b*) the school nurse notifies teachers and principal, who (*c*) record results neatly on cards, and (*d*) notify the parents, who (*e*) promptly forget all about the children, who (*f*) turn up bright and smiling for (*a*) again, and so through the cycle once more.

Hardy [15] describes a health-education program covering a three-year period which was successfully carried out in Joliet, Illinois. The attack was fivefold: (*a*) a carefully designed

[15] Martha C. Hardy, "Appraising Methods of Health Education," *The Sixteenth Yearbook, op. cit.*, pp. 390-398.

program of health instruction carried on in the classroom; (*b*) examination of the children by a pediatrician and a psychologist; followed by (*c*) discussion of the results of the examinations with children, teachers, and parents; supplemented by (*d*) individual conferences for parents and teachers with child specialists; and (*e*) follow-up work by the school nurses. The campaign centered upon improvement of general physical condition: muscular development and control; posture, tonsils, teeth, hearing, dietary practices, and sleep. In reviewing the results of three years of intensive effort in administering this health program, Hardy concludes that

> Specific classroom instruction on health topics, supplemented by periodic physical examinations with advice to parents, is an effective method of health education for elementary school children. There is indication that yearly conferences with a physician will stimulate sufficient interest on the part of both parent and child to produce an appreciable improvement in the child's health. When such conferences are accompanied by health teaching in the classroom, this improvement is markedly increased.[16]

The problem of health as worked out at the Fremont Avenue School, Los Angeles, is described in the following paragraphs.

The story of the Fremont Avenue School has been told elsewhere.[17] It is the story of a school in the downtown section of a metropolitan city facing the difficult problems of a cosmopolitan personnel and a constantly changing school population. At one time in its history it was not uncommon to have five hundred pupils in average daily attendance, and at the end of the school year, fifteen hundred children on its registers as enrolled at one time or another between September and June. Forty new children might enroll on Monday, and forty other children transfer out Friday afternoon. For this reason,

[16] *Ibid.*, p. 398.

[17] Robert Hill Lane, *The Progressive Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938), Chapter II; and *The Teacher in the Modern Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941), pp. 47-50.

the school's work was never done. In 1934, the school might have listed as assets the principal, Miss Eva Danielson, and two excellent teachers; as liabilities (1) fourteen teachers — competent, sincere, and anxious to please, but entirely inadequate to the local problem, (2) a rambling, uncomfortable building, (3) a rigid course of study, (4) uncertain discipline, as shown by the general unrest in the classrooms, and (5) an abnormal number of physical defects and of cases of malnutrition among the children.

The steps which were followed during the four years between 1934 and 1938 were:

1. Setting up a faculty of hand-picked teachers comparable in ability, enthusiasm, and vision to the principal.
2. Giving these artist-teachers, under adequate guidance, liberty to work out an educational program which would meet local needs.
3. Organizing the school on the basis of social maturity.
4. Developing a modern philosophy of education proceeding from practice to theory.
5. Undertaking a thoroughgoing health program.
6. Helping each child to build a truly integrated personality.

By 1938, the school had been transformed, as evidenced by the reports and reactions of hundreds of visitors to the school. Space is given here to only one phase of the program, the health survey, which is summarized by steps as follows:

1. The selection of the Survey Staff, Dr. C. Morley Sellery, Director.

Principal and teachers at Fremont Avenue
Dr. Helen R. Robertson, School Physician
Dr. W. M. Gardner, Head, Eye and Ear
Dr. P. W. Krogh, Telebinocular Examiner
Dr. Percy Goldberg, Audiometer Examiner
Mrs. Georgiene A. Thrower, Counselor
(Psychological service)
Mrs. Christobel Williams, Counselor
(Psychological service)
Miss Loretta Hickey, School Nurse
Mrs. H. B. O'Brien, W. P. A. Nurse

2. A request for information from the teachers in the school: (*a*) What personnel is needed for an adequate health program? (*b*) What health problems are acute in your classroom? (*c*) What limits the follow-up after a routine health examination? (*d*) What practices in our school are not conducive to health? (*e*) Does our physical-education program meet our health needs? (*f*) Why do we need to maintain an adequate rest program? On the basis of these answers the Survey Staff organized a health program for the school.

3. Audiometer and telebinocular tests were made by two specialists on the staff, and examinations were made by the eye-and-ear specialist.

4. The amount of time for the school physician and the school nurse was greatly increased.

5. Complete medical examinations replaced the superficial inspection usual in most elementary schools.

6. Cafeteria service was extended to include breakfast, mid-morning milk, and cod-liver oil for the undernourished children.

7. A rest program was developed.

8. Physicians, nurse, and counselors assisted the teachers to learn how to observe health conditions in the classroom, record notes accurately, and follow up effectively through the principal's office.

The report of the school physician for the first semester 1937-1938 is indicative of the thoroughness of her work:

1. Number of complete physical examinations	162
2. Number of health inspections	64
3. Consultations with teachers	53
4. Consultations with parents	135
5. Clinic appointments made	103

Conditions found needing attention (listed in the order of their frequency)

1. Malnutrition	48
2. Tonsils	45
3. Adenoids	43
4. Defective teeth	40

5. Postures	26
6. Foot defects	26
7. Nervous instabilities	26
8. Defective eyesight	23
9. Hair and skin diseases	20
10. Irremediable defects	10

(Frequencies less than 10 are not reported in this summary.)

Method of procedure for examinations

1. Special cases received first attention. These were referred by the principal, teacher, or counselor, or were chosen by the school nurse.

2. Those who had never been examined or had not been examined for a long period came next, with the kindergarten children sandwiched in as time permitted. The constant turnover brought constant new health problems.

3. A-6's were checked and followed up before they went to the junior high school.

4. Parents were requested to be present for examinations. Definite appointments brought a definite response from at least 95 per cent of the parents. Duplicate slips were attached to the health card, with information, symptoms, etc.

5. As far as possible, teachers were present for the examinations of their children.

Follow-up on physical defects found

1. Individual slips were made out for each child examined by the doctor. They conveyed information on the findings and recommendations, together with time and date of clinic appointments, etc. These slips, after being checked by the principal, were placed in the teachers' boxes. (Similar slips were made out with any subsequent information.)

2. When reports were received from the school clinic, the school nurse recorded this information on the health cards. The slips reached the teacher through the same procedure as above. Any further information received the same attention.

3. Defects corrected through either private or clinical means following physical examination:

Appointments made for clinical examination	305
Cases referred to private physicians	61
Eye cases treated	37
Glasses obtained	10
Nose and throat treatments	50
Tonsil and adenoid operations	28
Dental operations	71
Cardiac cases cared for	1
Chest examinations	5
Nervous examinations by neurologist	5
Skin cases cared for	16
Orthopedic cases cared for	17
Complete medical examinations made	20
Miscellaneous cases, including X-rays, physiotherapy treatments, minor surgery	91
Corrective cases, etc.	12
Individual audiometer tests	16
Endocrine	10
Sent to Psychology Department	8
Sent to Child Guidance	3

The reason emphasis has been laid in this brief report upon the health program at Fremont Avenue is that the solution to the health program proved to be the solution of nearly all the problems which confronted the principal and teachers. *In spite of all our eloquence on the subject of the health of school children, there are hardly half a dozen elementary schools in the entire nation which place the health of children as the most important feature of the school program. An immense amount of pioneer work needs to be done in this direction.*

9. *How shall I guide child experiences into child learning?*

This is a serious and vexing problem. One of the well-justified criticisms made of extreme "progressives" by their "essentialist" opponents is to the effect that child experiences may be delightful and may reflect children's interests and needs only to end in no learnings whatsoever, or at best, a con-

fusion of ideas, hastily-formed generalizations, inaccurate information, and poor habits of work. In many cases, of course, this has not been the result, but the danger is always present unless the teacher is constantly alert to the need that experiences must end in definite accomplishment – accurate knowledge and desirable habits and attitudes, among other things. With the exception of death and taxes, nothing is more certain than that learnings do not usually follow experiences unless a definite effort is made to ensure that happy result.

In discussing a specific subject-matter field, dramatics, Engleman [18] indicates several techniques of appraisal which may be generalized to assist in answering the problem under discussion. There are two questions the teacher may profitably address to herself in checking on how far experiences lead into learning:

What am I after? What are my specific objectives? Which of these may I properly call to the attention of my children, and which had better be kept locked up in my own mind? (In Engleman's situation, his objectives were: release of the child, growth in creative expression, growth in speech techniques, growth in knowledge and appreciation of the drama, growth in desirable reading habits, and growth in social attitudes.)

What means can I devise for checking progress? Among other means, the teacher makes informal notes of what actually happens to the group on successive dates to indicate the growing pattern of child development. She takes notes on the behavior of individual children. She uses a check list to record the quantity and quality of child participation in the enterprise in hand. Self-criticism and group criticism are encouraged. Children are guided into formulating standards by which they can judge the extent to which objectives are being reached.

[18] F. E. Engleman, "An Approach to the Appraisal of Information Dramatics," *The Sixteenth Yearbook, op. cit.*, pp. 435-442.

10. *What is the modern concept of an adequate testing program?*

As has been pointed out in an earlier chapter, the modern view is that no test is an end in itself, it is merely one of the means employed by a teacher in a modern school to discover facts about the children she teaches. It is based on the idea that the purpose of a test is not so much to see how close a child is to an artificial goal called a norm, an average, a median, or a standard, as it is to catch a picture of the child, as it were, just as we take a picture of a race horse halfway down the field, on his way from a starting point to a destination. *Where the child is at the time is not important in itself; it is important because it tells us how far he has come, at what rate of speed he is traveling, and where he may reasonably be expected to be in the near future.* A test of achievement cannot possibly indicate what should be taught at a given grade level nor can it show how well the teacher has "covered" the course of study. Lindquist elaborates on this point:

> Comprehensive standardized achievement tests for elementary school use measure skills and abilities which are continuously developed over a period of years, both in and out of school, and in all departments of instruction. No teacher can alone be held responsible for the performance of her pupils on such tests. The major purpose of a standardized test is to reveal individual differences – that are sometimes more than ten times as great as the differences in average ability from one grade to the next. To serve its purpose effectively, a test intended for any one grade must contain some items far beyond, and others far below, the ability of the average pupil in that grade. . . . The standardized test should be looked upon solely as a *measuring* instrument, and not as a teaching instrument, or as an abbreviated course of study.[19]

How shall the principal make best use of psychological findings? The answer to this question depends, of course, upon the system in which the principal works. In a large city school system maintaining a psychological bureau or a re-

[19] E. F. Lindquist, "Standardized Achievement Tests and Their Relation to Curriculum Content," *The Sixteenth Yearbook, op. cit.*, p. 484.

search division, the school psychologist usually employs field supervisors, each of whom distributes his time among several schools and works co-operatively with principals. In many school systems, one or more teachers are appointed jointly by supervisors and principal to act as assistant research workers or counselors with the school. In some large school systems, the school psychologist employs two types of assistant, one specializing on the administrative phases of research, the other on individual differences among children. Where this form of organization occurs, it is usual to maintain a psychological and psychiatric clinic as part of the school system.

The principal in the smaller school — village or rural — and the principal in a system where school funds are meager have to depend largely upon themselves in organizing and administering a program of educational research. The following paragraphs are addressed particularly to such principals:

By and large, the research program (as we may call it) divides itself into three major functions: (*a*) an effective testing program, (*b*) correct placement of pupils in the school organization, and (*c*) provision for individual differences in children.

What are we searching for in a testing program? We are not attempting to set one school system in competition with others. We are not setting one school against another school, or one class against another class, or one child against his classmates. We are not using the testing program to show the success or failure of the teacher. There is only one legitimate reason for a testing program, and that is to secure such information about a child as will assist the school to direct his growth and development intelligently. This information concerns (*a*) the intelligence of the child, (*b*) his achievement in school subjects, (*c*) his social and emotional nature. Let the principal remember, and this point is vitally important, that the testing program is only part of the necessary gathering of information. The other half centers around the teacher's careful, intelligent observation of the daily behavior of the child and the maintenance of adequate records of her observation. Each is essential, and each complements the other. In

general, American elementary schools maintain fairly effective testing programs, but progress in the observation-and-records department is painfully slow. We simply do not know what and how to observe or to record facts based on observation.

What tests should be used? It is impossible to answer this question except in the most general fashion, since school systems vary so greatly. In many cases, the batteries of tests to be used are designated by some central authority, under whose guidance the tests are given. For the principal "on his own" without outside assistance or guidance, the following brief list may serve as a point of departure.

Intelligence Tests [20]

(*a*) Detroit kindergarten (for kindergarten children)
(*b*) Detroit Beginning First Grade (for kindergarten and B 1) [21]
(*c*) Detroit Advanced First Grade (for A 1)
(*d*) Detroit Primary (A 2 to B 4)
(*e*) Haggerty Delta I (A 2 to A 3)
(*f*) Kuhlman – Anderson (all grades)
(*g*) National (B 4 to A 6)
(*h*) Intermediate (A 5 to A 6)
(*i*) Pintner-Cunningham Primary (B 1 to B 2)
(*j*) Terman Group Ability (A 6)

Reading

(*a*) Gates Primary (A 1 to B 3)
(*b*) Gates Silent (A 3 to A 8)
(*c*) Haggerty Sigma I
(*d*) Progressive Primary (A 2 to B 4)
(*e*) Progressive Elementary (B 4 to A 6)
(*f*) Stanford (B 4 to A 8)

General Achievement

(*a*) Modern School (B 6 to A 8)
(*b*) Modern School, Short Form (B 6 to A 8)
(*c*) Progressive Primary (A 3 to B 4)
(*d*) Progressive Elementary (B 4 to A 6)
(*e*) Stanford Primary (B 3 to B 4)
(*f*) Stanford Advanced (B 4 to A 8)
(*g*) Iowa, Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills

[20] These are all group tests. They indicate the child's intelligence, but, of course, the most accurate test is the individual Stanford-Binet, which measures all ages from the two-year-old to the adult.

[21] In this book B 1 refers to the first half of the first grade, and B 2 to the second half of the first grade.

It is highly significant that the modern concept of a testing program emphasizes strongly the need for tests on the so-called "intangibles" – emotional development, social development, the power of critical thinking, personality traits, and so on, which are not measured by conventional tests of intelligence and achievement. Much progress has been made; much needs to be done along this line. Wrightstone [22] suggests a three-way approach to the problem. Assuming that the staff of an elementary school has drawn up a statement of the purposes or objectives to which the school is committed, the members of the staff may, with profit, go through the list and after each objective or purpose indicate practical methods by which to obtain evidence that will show with what degree of success the objective or purpose has been realized.

The staff may indicate objective tests which have proved helpful in securing the desired information; or may indicate some practical methods whereby that evidence may possibly be secured; or may state that no means are at hand for the moment which will answer the purpose and that further search for suitable instruments of measurement must be made.

> The new tests tend to disregard and cut across the conventional subject-matter lines; a single test of functional pupil behavior may include such materials as are found in the traditional subjects of reading, arithmetic, English, social studies, and natural sciences. The construction of these newer tests is still in the experimental stage. The prospects, however, are sufficiently bright to indicate that within a few years we shall have valid and reliable tests for measuring many of the significant achievements of progressive education. . . . A large and only slightly explored field of measurement is here open to imaginative, informed, and inventive students of education.[23]

All this is, as we have said, highly significant, because it indicates so clearly the growing sensitivity of school people to the needs and interests of children as persons in distinction

[22] J. W. Wrightstone, "Measuring the Attainment of Newer Educational Objectives," *The Sixteenth Yearbook, op. cit.*, pp. 493-501.
[23] *Ibid.*, p. 501.

from the traditional approach, which looked upon children merely as receptacles for subject matter. It is encouraging, also, that approved methods of appraisal of the intangibles include records of the observational (observer-diary) type in which the insight of the teacher plays so large a part, in contrast to formal tests, which are at the best impersonal, mechanical devices.

Notes on Chapter Eight

1. Reavis, William C., Editor, *Evaluating the Work of the School.* Proceedings of the Ninth Annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. Of especial interest to elementary-school principals: Characteristics of Effective Instruction, p. 53; The General Improvement of Instructional Services, p. 185; Reports of Round-Table Conferences, pp. 50, 103, 146, 179. Attention is called to the Selected Bibliography, pp. 225-227.

2. Wrightstone, J. Wayne, *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. This book, which has evolved out of a modest report that appeared in 1935, has become an educational classic, and the principal will find it invaluable in the evaluation of his school program. Required reading.

3. Kelley, Truman L., Giles M. Ruch, and Lewis M. Terman, *Stanford Achievement Test,* Forms D, E, F, G, and H. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1940. According to the authors, this test forms "a valid and reliable measure of the contemporary curriculum."

CHAPTER NINE

◇

The Principal as Accountant

THE PRECEDING CHAPTER dealt with the general appraisal of the school by the principal in his capacity as Director of Learning. This chapter also deals with appraisal, but appraisal of another kind. It attempts to answer two related questions: How shall I, as principal, seek to improve myself in service? What steps shall I take so that at any time I can account to my superiors, the patrons of my school, and the general public for my stewardship?

Let us put the first question into different form. How shall I, in my attempts at self-improvement, seek to build a scale of values which will enable me to assess the operation of my school justly? The answer to the question is found in the following account of techniques which have been proved successful in dealing with principals over a period of years: The Group Visit, the Group Conference, and the Exchange Visit or Intervisitation. The answer to the second question is embodied in the description of the continuous inventory with which this chapter closes.

I. The Principals' Group Visit

This plan assumes that the principal is employed in a town or city school system which contains several elementary

schools, and that a group of principals voluntarily associate themselves together to engage in visiting, with the superintendent or an assistant superintendent invited to act as leader of the group. The specific steps are outlined below.

A group of principals — preferably five to seven — decide to spend a half day visiting a selected elementary school under the direction of, and in company with, the superintendent or his representative. A date is agreed upon at least a week before the visit takes place, so that proper preparation may be made. A day or so before the scheduled visit, the principals meet in conference with their leader to discuss the probable procedures to be followed. These procedures are listed in a mimeographed outline, a copy of which is handed to each member of the group. Such an outline may read somewhat as follows:

Principals' Group Visit

Alexander Hamilton School, May 1, 194—

1. Plan to arrive on the playground at 8:30 A.M. to inspect playground organization, teacher control, and general attitude of the children.
2. Meet as a group in the principal's office at 9:00 A.M. sharp, at which time the principal will inform the group as to the general policies, conditions, and problems of her school.
3. Visit the school in every department between 9:15 A.M. and noon.
4. From your visit attempt to answer the following questions regarding the school:
 (*a*) Does the school appear to be well organized?
 (*b*) Is the school well managed?
 (*c*) Are children and teachers friendly and courteous?
 (*d*) Is learning going on?
 (*e*) Is there an absence of strain and tension?
 (*f*) Does the principal handle human relationships happily and effectively?
 (*g*) Does the school reflect a modern philosophy of education?

 (Note: These questions are not necessarily the only ones to be asked; they are merely suggestive.)

A day or so after the group visit, the group members meet with the principal of the school for a comprehensive review of their observations. Each member of the group is invited to express himself freely, until a complete picture of the school is formed. The principal is allowed to challenge the items in the completed survey of her school, to add information, to refute criticisms, and to defend her administration. Free discussion is encouraged until the leader ends the conference by a brief summary of the facts, together with recommendations for further improvement.

In some instances, the conference is held on the same day as the visit, but it is better to wait until the visitors have had time to get their notes in order and to reflect on what they have seen.

II. The Principals' Group Conference

Visiting as described above inevitably opens up a host of problems apart from those which are unique with respect to the schools which were visited. This section describes the type of conference at which general problems may be profitably discussed. In a large city, the group conference will probably be made up of principals in contiguous geographical districts, where common interests and a similarity of local conditions help to hold the group together. Occasionally, the group may be made up of principals from widely separated sections of the city who are interested in a common problem, regardless of local conditions.

The group conference has its characteristic merits and defects. The leader may be autocratic or democratic. An autocratic leader tends to suppress individual initiative, but under a good executive, autocratic procedures do "get things done" and save an immense amount of time. A democratic leader encourages ample self-expression, but unless the leader has unusual skill in handling people this tends to encourage aimless discussion of trivial items. Any experienced executive who invites discussion of a list of topics by elementary-school

principals knows that such "major" matters of concern as what to do with stray dogs on the schoolyard and how to prevent the custodian from waxing floors too heavily tend to consume time in a principals' meeting. Possibly the best way to eliminate lost motion is for a small planning board to canvass the local situation and select for discussion subjects which have real educational significance and are applicable to local conditions. In situations where leadership from above is dilatory or lacking, there is no reason why principals should wait for someone else to act. An up-and-coming principal can easily form a working study-and-conference group from his fellow principals and set a pattern for the whole system.

Whatever the problem selected for study, it is essential that the major points to be discussed should be mimeographed and placed in the hands of the members of the group. Long speeches, prepared in advance, should be eliminated, and the discussion should be informal and conversational. It is not necessary to use the "panel discussion" technique, because, with a small group, it is possible for the members to sit around a table and talk freely.

While conditions vary widely, the following topics taken from recent group conferences in a large city system may prove suggestive.

A series of four conferences on the *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook*,[1] Part One, of the National Society for the Study of Education. From this volume, entitled *Child Development and the Curriculum*, ample material was taken to illuminate stages in child development in general; child development through reading, child development through arithmetic, and child development through the arts.

The organization administration, procedures, techniques, and goals of the Lower School (day and nursery school, kindergarten and primary grades).

The reading-readiness program in the Lower School.

Grouping on the basis of social maturity—its assets and liabilities.

A core curriculum in the social studies for the elementary schools.

[1] Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1939.

How to set up the classroom environment so as to provide good experiences for elementary-school children.

The language-arts program in the elementary school.

The place of skills-and-drills in a modern educational program.

Bridging the gap between elementary school and junior high school.

The development of an adequate health program.

III. The Principals' Exchange Visit

It is the considered opinion of the author of this book that the intervisitation of schools based upon the exchange system offers more possibilities for professional growth than any other single type of improvement. Two techniques for this visiting are suggested, the first of which is substantially as follows:

The visiting group consists of five or six principals under the leadership of the superintendent or one of his assistants. The principals should be chosen from schools which are comparable in size and in the type of neighborhood served. For example, the principals of schools with enrollments of six hundred to eight hundred children in middle-class American districts would constitute a homogeneous group. The principals of schools with enrollments of four hundred to five hundred in schools serving parents of foreign birth would constitute another workable group. The principals selected should be able to work together happily and effectively. They should also be well-poised and able to take criticism and suggestion impersonally. Principals who have been unfriendly to each other, or who are easily "insulted," will not be good members for a group of this sort.

The principals meet with their leader. He explains that each principal will act as principal of each of the other four schools for one day. A schedule is made up somewhat as follows:

	Lincoln	*Washington*	*Madison*	*Monroe*	*Grant*
Nov. 8	Brown	Talbot	Healy	Jones	Evans
Nov. 15	Jones	Evans	Brown	Talbot	Healy
Nov. 29	Healy	Jones	Evans	Brown	Talbot
Dec. 6	Talbot	Healy	Jones	Evans	Brown

Dec. 13 First Conference with Leader

(Note: Mr. Evans is principal of the Lincoln School, and so does not appear in the Lincoln School schedule, etc.)

It is suggested that on the scheduled day, the visiting principal assume the duties of the home principal and that he carry on the work of the principal's office as regularly as possible and with the least dislocation in the routine of the school.

It is desirable that at the time of the first exchange date (i.e. Nov. 8 in the above schedule) the principal of each school should notify his clerk that he will be absent the following day, and that, in his absence, she is to welcome the visiting principal and assist him in every possible way. It is particularly desirable that the teachers should not be warned in advance of the exchange, as there is always a tendency for them to "set the stage" to impress the visitor.

When the exchange principal reaches the school to be visited, he should ask the clerk to notify the teachers in writing as follows before school begins:

> Our principal is absent today acting as principal of School. His place is being filled by Mr. , Principal of . . School.

A certain proportion of the visiting principal's time will be devoted to routine school business in the office. As soon as he is freed from those duties, he should visit the school throughout, keeping in mind these basic questions:

1. *Is this a friendly school?* Are children, teachers and other employees genuinely glad to see me? Are they reserved, suspicious, or definitely unfriendly? Is everybody at his ease with me, or is there a sense of strain and tension? Am I welcomed as a member of the group when I visit a classroom, or am I regarded as an intruder?

2. *Is this a lively school?* Is there something doing in each room that is genuinely interesting to children and in which they are co-operating with enthusiasm? Is there genuine freedom without license? Are the children partners in school enterprises? Are they showing evidence of initiative, responsibility, self-direction, and self-control?

3. *Do the teachers seem to be sensitive to the needs of children as persons?* Or are they more interested in "putting

over" subject matter? Are they building personality or suppressing it?

4. *Is the faculty united?* [2] Are the teachers happy members of a congenial group, or are there evidences of cliques and factions? Or does each teacher go her own way without regard to the other fellow? Are the teachers kind to and considerate of each other?

5. *Are the teachers working toward recognizable goals, or are they merely improvising?* It is not essential at this point to specify what the goals are, be they extremely formal or extremely "progressive." The point is, do the teachers know what they are doing? Are they planning their work? Do they know what ends they wish to reach? Is real learning going on? Are the children secure in the leadership of the teacher?

6. *What is the teaching level of the school?* Is the faculty above average in ability, average, or below? Before we judge a principal, we should consider the human material with which he is compelled to work. A very strong faculty can carry a very weak principal, but a strong principal can do just so much and no more with a faculty of mediocre, indifferent, and poorly-equipped teachers.

7. *What new ideas can you take back to your own school?* If you were principal of this school, what should you do that is not now being done? Experience has taught us that the visitor also needs to ask himself, "Am I a pleasant visitor to have in the school?" There is a responsibility on the visiting principal to be as "nice" to the children and teachers as he expects them to be "nice" to him.

The visitor should make as full notes as possible, taking care not to leave the impression that he is collecting evidence against the teachers. The rough notes taken during the day should be rewritten and expanded at leisure. He should at all times give the school the impression that he is visiting to learn and not visiting to find fault.

The conferences which follow the scheduled visits constitute

[2] This is a difficult point to determine from a brief observation, but it is possible to obtain a general impression.

the essential feature of the exchange method. The first task is to establish a "profile" or over-all view of each of the five schools concerned. The initial step in making the profile is to ask each of the four visitors to answer briefly the following questions: In your opinion is the Lincoln School (for example) a friendly school? A lively school? Are the teachers sensitive to the needs of their children as persons? Is the faculty united? Are the teachers working toward recognizable goals? What did you take back to your own school from the Lincoln School? What changes should you make if you were the principal of the Lincoln School? What is the teaching level and what needs to be done about it? As each of the four visitors in turn answers these questions, the leader makes notes of the answers for use in the second conference. While the principal who is under fire listens to his colleagues giving their impressions, there is a natural tendency on his part to answer criticisms at length. In practice, it is better to deny him this privilege at the first conference in order to get the five profiles finished at one sitting.

At the second conference, the profiles have been mimeographed, and a set of five is handed to each member of the group. A typical profile appears as follows:

A Profile of Madison School

	Brown	*Jones*	*Healy*	*Evans*
1 A friendly school?	Yes	Partly	Not very [3]	50 per cent
2 A lively school?	In spots	Not very	Partly	In spots
3 Concern for children?	Yes	No, teachers apathetic	Yes, in spots	Possibly
4 A united school?	Very	Yes	Yes	Yes
5 Recognizable goals?	Yes, in part	Yes, very formal	Yes	Partly
6 What did you take back?	Office techniques	Cafeteria management	Yard organization	Strong discipline
7 What would you do as principal?	Remove certain teachers	Improve the teaching	Extend experiences and improve classrooms	Build better group spirit
8 Teaching level?	Average	Mediocre	Low	Average

[3] The marked differences in response to this question puzzled us greatly until we discovered that the visitor himself determines the answer, in

The consensus of opinion was that four teachers needed the stimulus of a transfer and could with profit be replaced by younger teachers.

It will be found necessary to have several conferences to develop the profiles accurately. Obviously, the first profiles give a very superficial view of the schools. Their purpose is to establish a base line from which to do more extensive measurement. The purpose of the second conference is to secure as much additional data as possible. Now the principal whose school is under discussion is allowed to comment freely on the reports made on his school. His friendly critics are asked to read extracts from their notes, and little by little a more exact picture of the school evolves. Here the leader has the responsibility not only of bringing out the facts but of finding the basic reasons for them. If the school is not a friendly school, what conditions have led up to this attitude? Is it because the school has few visitors and the teachers have grown so completely away from the niceties of social intercourse that their social sense has atrophied? Is it because they are lazy and indifferent and do not want to be bothered? Is it because they are insecure and worried and afraid of "being found out" in some real or fancied lapse from professional conduct? Unless the underlying causes of unsatisfactory conditions are reached, there is little hope of a permanent cure.

In looking over a set of recent profiles, one is struck by the things which have pleased the visitors during the days of the exchange. For example: "This is a *very* friendly school; the children are unusually courteous and genuinely glad to see us." "There is a fine, quiet working atmosphere in the school without unrest and disorder." "The principal has unusual skill in office management." "The equipment and administration of the cafeteria are excellent." "Certain teachers are extraordi-

part at least. A friendly visitor is likely to have a cordial reception. A stiff and critical visitor cannot expect a hearty welcome. In addition, the visitor reveals unconsciously his own strengths and weaknesses, a point the leader needs to keep in mind if he is to help his principals to grow in grace.

narily skillful in directing learning." "Children are enthusiastic about their school." "The playground is well organized." "Work centers are really functioning." "Flower arrangement is well done in all rooms." "Classroom techniques are worthy of study by other teachers and principals."

On the other side of the ledger we find: "I have never seen such a smug, self-satisfied faculty." "The teachers are delightful persons, but they are as lazy as they dare to be." "Some of the teachers resented my visit, and this attitude was reflected by their pupils." "Many of these teachers stress subject matter at the expense of the children." "The Lower School is excellent, the Upper School appalling." "The teachers really want to do the right thing, but don't know how." "A small group of teachers runs the school." "The physical plant has gone to seed."

For the guidance of groups of principals experimenting with the exchange visit, the following analysis may be helpful.

1. *Is this a friendly school?*

A few of the possible reasons for a negative answer have been given in the preceding section. Certainly, the principal is fortunate if his teachers all have the necessary social arts and graces. If they lack social sense, the principal will have to find methods of cultivating it. Possibly fear and insecurity are at the bottom of many school troubles. If the principal suspects that these are present in his school, his confidence in his teachers and his own genuine friendliness and patience should bring about a change in attitude. The next step, probably, is to see to it that the school has as many visitors as possible, so that teachers may overcome their fear of strangers and grow into the social graces by continued practice. An experienced visitor can always spot the school which has been well visited. His presence in the school is a minor incident in the lives of children and teachers; they accept him quickly and gracefully and go about their work, assuming that he will fit into place as a member of their group. The lazy and indifferent teacher, who distrusts visitors because of her distrust

in herself, needs to be rehabilitated to the point where she has confidence in herself and in her pupils. Certainly, no school wishes to have the reputation of being unfriendly and discourteous, and the principal will be well advised to discuss the matter frankly with his faculty. If it is understood clearly by his teachers that their professional reputation will depend in some degree at least upon their general attitude toward visitors, it is probable that even the most self-centered teacher will make a serious attempt to change her ways. It should be made clear to teachers that it is not necessary to overwhelm the visitor with continued attention. "Greet him cordially, make him free of the room, and then go about your business," is good advice. The same principle applies to the children's reception of visitors. The professional host or hostess in extremely "progressive" schoolrooms often bores the visitor by insisting that he inspect and admire everything in the room. It is far better for the child to say, "I am the host (or hostess) and if you need me, I shall be very glad to help make your visit pleasant."

2. *Is this a lively school?*

There are relatively few schools where the answer to this question will be an unqualified "yes" for every classroom in the building. Whether a classroom is "lively" or the reverse will depend upon the educational philosophy of the teacher. If she is an adherent of the good old theory that children should be seen and not heard and should do as they are told without question; if she believes in rigid, military discipline; if her nerves are sensitive and she cannot stand noise; if she overstresses the three R's because she does not know how or does not wish to teach anything else, she will not have a very lively room. On the other hand, if she is an extreme progressive, her room may be lively in the wrong sense of the word. She may mistake noise, confusion, and a lack of definite direction for indications that she is very progressive.

"Lively," in the sense of the word which is accepted by good teachers, reflects the workshop idea — that the classroom is a

busy, interesting place where good experiences of several kinds are going on successfully in a controlled environment, and where there is no lost motion. There will be quiet, restful periods for study and reflection, but an underlying spirit of initiative, self-direction, and responsibility will be evident. The principal's task in this respect will be to develop a philosophy of education which reflects the idea that children are living, growing things who require enough action in their daily lives to promote growth, and that continual restraint and iron discipline run counter to biological law. He should not forget that children need security and confidence in themselves, that the modern schoolroom demands good order, careful direction, and adequate planning, and that mere "liveliness" for its own sake defeats its purpose.

3. *Are the teachers concerned about their children as persons and are they sensitive to their needs?*

There is no rough-and-ready rule which will help a principal to secure an affirmative answer overnight. The formal teacher who is immersed in subject matter, the young married woman who is teaching solely for the money, the crabby teacher who resents children on general principles – all these are insensitive to the rights of children. Grouping a school on the basis of social maturity helps to force children-as-persons upon the attention of the teacher. Careful growth records of individual children over a period of months or the retention of the teacher with her class for several terms, may prove adequate starting points for a change in attitude. The principal, himself, can do a great deal to help. If he takes the continuous growth of children as the major goal for his school and enlists the sympathetic support of such teachers and parents as really do see children as persons, the remaining members of the faculty will be brought slowly into line.

4. *Is the faculty a united, happy family?*

Human nature being what it is, the answer is sometimes in the negative. There may be a clean break between the Lower

and the Upper School. The primary teachers are often young, energetic, and up-to-date in their methods; the upper grade teachers often are just the opposite. Occasionally the situation is reversed, and the Lower School is made up of conservative people who hammer the three R's religiously and relentlessly into their charges. Usually the presence of cliques and factions in the school is due to the fact that too many teachers have been too long in the school and petty misunderstandings have been magnified down through the years to the point where certain teachers refuse to speak to each other. A militant minority may have grown so strong that its members are able not only to "freeze out" the occasionally progressive teacher who is assigned to the school, but to get the principal himself in such a state of subjection that his job depends upon their good will.[4]

There are two methods of solving the problem which need to be employed concurrently. The first is for the principal to insist upon a free flow of new blood into the faculty, moving at least two new teachers in and two old ones out each year, until the back of the opposition is broken. The second is to set a task before the entire school which will require unified action and the elimination of such teachers as refuse to cooperate. The chosen enterprise may range from such a simple matter as setting up an adequate classroom environment in each room, to such a complex affair as a thorough-going health program, but large or small, it will tend to bring to the surface hidden strains, tensions, and antagonisms in disrupted schools, which will give evidence to the principal of the faculty members who are giving most trouble.[5]

Once he has objective evidence of the opposition, the principal is in a position to do something about it. A genial, jolly, kindly, tolerant, and well-poised executive always tends to

[4] In one school the queen of the reigning clique said bluntly to a newly arrived teacher, "Don't try any new stunts around here. We are comfortable as we are and don't intend to be disturbed."

[5] It should be understood, of course, that the common task is intended to unify the school. The strains and stresses are merely significant by-products.

surround himself with like-minded people. The chronic grouch, the chronic troublemaker, and the inveterate gossip do not long survive under the firm hand of the right executive.

5. *Are the teachers working toward recognizable goals?*

The question here is really twofold: Do the teachers have goals, and if so, are the goals desirable? One of the most common sources of poor teaching is lack of good planning; the teacher is not clear in her mind as to the ends she wishes to reach, and so she improvises from day to day, trusting to luck that her children will learn something. Certainly, a thoroughly efficient hell-fire-and-brimstone teacher of the most formal type [6] is infinitely preferable to the teacher who has no goals in sight. The former has very definite goals in view, has the techniques to reach them, and ends by having her children really learn a great deal. The principal who attacks this particular problem will be wise to allow each teacher who has definite goals in mind to follow her particular style of teaching without interference so long as her goals are clear and definite, and devote his attention to helping the mediocre and fuzzy-minded teacher learn how to plan her work so that a few simple goals may loom upon her personal horizon. After this desirable stage has been reached, he may proceed to the delicate task of replacing wrong goals by right goals, which is simply another way of saying that he will try to develop a modern philosophy of education.

6. *Does the school preserve a proper balance between freedom and license?*

In other words, what kind of discipline is characteristic of the school and does it contribute to a child's experience in the democratic process? There are many educators who dislike the word "discipline," but to most people it means the order in school which is a vital prerequisite to learning. For the school

[6] From the standpoint of a progressive, one of the amusing things about her is the firm hold she has on the affections of the majority of the children and of their parents. Theoretically, they should detest her, but they don't!

must maintain order, and if the average parent were asked to choose between a school characterized by rigid discipline and one without any discipline whatever, he would unhesitatingly choose the former – and he would be right. Fortunately, there is a sensible middle course, and whether we like it or not, we shall have to accept the fact that the teachers and principal of the school will have to impose some type of discipline upon the children until the children are led slowly and very gradually to the point where they can participate in the disciplining of themselves. It is wise to give freedom to children, but it is possible only where children have proved that they can accept freedom by using it wisely, a simple truth that would have saved a good many so-called progressive schools from going on the educational reef, had it been observed.

The essence of all good discipline is to have a few simple rules of behavior which are to be implicitly obeyed throughout the school, and to permit no infraction of these rules. They were devised to make sure that the safety and welfare of the children were preserved. Beyond this point, teachers and principals will have to determine how far behavior patterns must be fixed by the adults in the school, and how far children can safely participate in their own self-direction. It is a slow, tedious, and painful process, but as fast as children show that they can accept partial responsibility for their conduct, their participation can be enlarged according to their strength. There is nothing more foolish than giving children freedom before they have learned to use it, but if we are to maintain democracy in our country, we must train children in democratic living, bearing in mind that the doses will be small but regular, increasing in amount as the child grows older and proves that he can "take it."

7. *Is a balanced program of learning going on in the school and do the children really learn?*

By a balanced program we mean that the school pays careful attention to education in

(*a*) the fundamental bodily skills
(*b*) the fundamental intellectual skills

(*c*) the fundamental social skills
(*d*) the aesthetic arts
(*e*) the practical arts and crafts

and does not go "haywire" on any one of these to the exclusion or the slighting of all the rest. With a few exceptions, the American elementary school today devotes insufficient time to the fundamental bodily and social skills, devotes an excessive amount of time to the intellectual skills, and skimps on the rest of the list. In visiting a school it is well to observe how far the school really values health and physical fitness and the ability to get along with other people happily and successfully.

This is half the story. Provided that the school does provide a balanced program of learning, does learning actually take place? Do the children really practice good health habits? Do they read well, understand what they read, and enjoy reading? Do they write a legible hand? Do they really have some social uses for their arithmetical knowledge? Observation of the pupils at work, the testing program, and the testimony of the teachers are the sources from which we draw our conclusions. It is so easy for a school to be a friendly, lively, and united school, to be a school where children are persons, to be a school where they are well cared for and which children love to attend – to be all these desirable things, and yet fail to clinch the learnings which the school recognizes as desirable. Some people propose to get learning by making the school cold and unfriendly, by valuing subject matter more than children, and by regimenting the children, but that is not the solution. Let us keep all the fine things we do, but check our results systematically to ensure that learning is growing apace.

The seven points discussed in the preceding paragraphs arose, as we have seen, out of exchange visits made by the members of a relatively small number of principals. In a large system, where it seems desirable to have several groups of principals engaged in intervisitation, a second technique

may be used to conserve the time of the leader. The method of visiting is changed so that the visiting principal, instead of assuming charge of the school in the regular principal's absence, appears only as a visitor. The principal of the school visited may absent himself to visit another school, or may remain in his own school to receive the visitor. This is, of course, a more flexible scheme than the preceding one, because the visiting principal may elect to spend a morning in the school to be visited at one time and an afternoon on some other convenient day. The school, in the meantime, is not without an official head: authority rests in the hands of one of the senior teachers, who has been regularly designated substitute principal.

After the visits have been made, the opening conference of the group is handled quite differently from the type of conference discussed in the previous section. The leader begins by saying:

> Since we have a number of groups visiting concurrently, we will proceed today to the major problems you discovered. Mr. Jones, if you were to be assigned as principal of the Benjamin Franklin School next Monday, what major problems should you wish to solve? Please name three things that should receive your immediate attention. I know you wish to begin by enumerating all the fine things you found, but omit them for today. Just outline three important problems which you discovered as a result of your visit.

Mr. Jones replies, "Well, I can think of three – the improvement of the physical plant, the lack of unity among the teachers, and the exceedingly 'spotty' teaching I found – good in some spots, fine in others, and very poor in still others."

Mr. Brown, the principal of the Benjamin Franklin School, is asked to name three problems discovered by him at the Ulysses S. Grant School, and so on, until each principal has been heard from and each school has had its major problems described. At the close of the hour the chairman says:

> Within the next ten days, please send me a separate sheet on each of the schools visited. On one side write the name

of the school, and below develop two columns of comments. Head one "Assets," the other "Liabilities." Under "Assets" list all the fine things you found; under "Liabilities," all the things which you question. On the back of the sheet, list three major problems which demand immediate attention. This means several sheets from each of you. I will combine your statements and mimeograph them, and this mimeographed statement will be the basis for discussion at our next conference.

When the group meets again in conference, each member is presented with a set of sheets, each headed by the name of a certain school, listing those problems which have been stated by the visitor whose name appears on the margin. Such a sheet looks somewhat as follows:

Grover Cleveland School

Major Problems

1. Dusty, crowded play areas.
2. Failure to develop responsibility and initiative with children.
3. Self-satisfaction of teachers. (Jones) [7]

1. Lack of continuity in reading materials.
2. Congested playground.
3. A number of indolent teachers. (Brown)

1. Overemphasis on constructive activities.
2. Formality of most teachers.
3. Use of old materials of instruction. (Robinson)

1. Badly managed playground.
2. Satisfaction of teachers with mediocre results.
3. Imposition of discipline on children. (Smith)

1. Lack of equipment and supplies.
2. Congested play areas.
3. Evidence of poor work habits. (Henderson)

[7] The name of the critic is always given, because it has been found that the principal under discussion needs to know who his critic is if he desires additional information. Mr. Carson, principal of the Grover Cleveland School, may say, "Mr. Jones, please explain your second point. We feel that our children are *very* responsible and resourceful."

In addition, each principal is given the original reports on his own school, so that he has four or more pictures of his school (depending on the size of the group) which he can study with profit.

By the time these problems have been discussed in a frank and friendly manner with Mr. Carson, the principal of the Grover Cleveland School, he should be awakened to his problems and be in a mood to seek the advice of his colleagues as to desirable methods of solution.

A variation of this procedure is to have the members of the group list all the problems of the school, then isolate a few under the heading, *What Should Be Done at Once.* Some typical suggestions under this head are:

> Put in six new teachers with a modern point of view and scatter the six displaced teachers among six schools which are more modern in trend. This will concentrate the attack on the school which needs help desperately and will not penalize the other schools by overloading any one of them with reactionary people.
>
> Try to develop a sense of security in a very "jittery" faculty. Cover the dusty playground with asphaltic concrete (popularly known as "Black Top").
>
> Provide decent quarters for the teachers' luncheons.
>
> Make more effective and more frequent use of supervisory service.
>
> Modernize kindergarten procedures in a kindergarten still in the "Good-morning-children-now-bring-your-little-chairs-into-the-morning-circle-and-I'll-tell-you-a-pretty-story-about-a-dear-little-robin" stage.
>
> The Upper School and Lower School are fine; the Middle School is very poor. The teachers are not to blame; no one seems to have told the third- and fourth-grade teachers what is expected of them. As a result, they feel neglected and are thoroughly discouraged. Put your shoulder to the wheel and give them friendly help instead of criticism.
>
> Replace unprofitable seatwork by desirable child experiences.
>
> Eliminate your "special" (remedial) rooms, which are being used solely as hoppers for unwanted children.

A summary of the points raised for discussion by eight visitation groups should prove helpful:

1. *Personnel*

Getting teachers together as to educational ideals (developing a common philosophy of education which is simple and practical).

Securing better principal-teacher relationships.

Securing better pupil-teacher relationships.

Bringing teachers together on some enterprise which seems worth while to them and adds to the effectiveness of the school.

Revitalizing the spirit of a spiritless school.

Building a friendly spirit on the part of teachers and children where an unfriendly spirit persists.

2. *Growth and development*

Closer supervision of sick children.

A better health-nutrition-rest program.

Better management of present health program.

Improvement of cafeteria menu.

Better provision for children's lunchroom.

Better lighting in classrooms and hall.

Provision of breakfast and midmorning lunch for certain children.

3. *Improvement of physical plant*

Improvement of entire plant.

Planting trees and shrubs on bare school grounds.

Improvement of yard conditions in general.

Improvement of garden.

Painting of building, yard benches, playground apparatus, etc.

Improvement of kindergarten and primary playground.

Installing sinks in all classrooms.

Building block cupboards in primary rooms.

4. *Management*

Better schedule for use of auditorium.

Better arrangement of playground apparatus and yard benches.

Better organization of playground activities.

Eliminating needless interruptions from principal's office.

Improving management of visual aids.

Improving testing program.

Correcting poor housekeeping in classrooms, office, and storerooms.

5. *Direction of learning*

Helping teachers to plan their work more effectively.

Adding centers of interest to provide better experiences for children.

Evaluating effectiveness of present centers of interest.

Improving appearance of classrooms.

Developing new interests for children in meager situations of the "sit-and-listen" type.

Regrouping children more effectively.

Developing more leadership and self-expression with children.

Developing a better physical-education program.

Replacing teacher-domination by child-participation.

Developing good motives for children's experiences and, by so doing, securing more enthusiasm and interest.

Improving the manners of all persons in the school.

Improving art, practical arts, and music programs, giving them their rightful places in the daily program.

Continuing teacher with class beyond one semester.

Improving obsolete teaching methods.

Using supervisory help more widely and effectively.

Evaluating *best* teaching as well as *poorest* teaching. Some principals accept the work of their best teachers as good when it actually leaves much to be desired.

Can principals "take it on the chin"? Not always. Here is a major problem for the leader. If a member of the group appears to be resentful of suggestion, the best cure is to invite him to visit another group, the members of which are able to discuss each other's problems and enjoy them. Certainly

closing our eyes to the limitations of principals in this respect does not solve anything.

Whatever the technique may be, whether visiting is done by a small, selected group or on the grand scale which includes every principal in the school district, it is vital, urgent, and imperative that *something should be done.* Here, again, is a task for the leader, to see that the suggestions finally approved in true democratic fashion by all members of the group are followed up and made to function. Nothing is more discouraging to principals than to realize their problems and find no help at hand. It is no fun to stew in one's own juice!

After the principal has pondered on the suggestions of his fellow principals, a personal appraisal may also be in order. Let him reflect upon the possibility that he, as well as some of his teachers, needs to mend his ways. It will not be a bad idea to run down the following list and confess to himself his various sins of omission and commission:

Do I work hard at my job, or am I, to put it bluntly, a little lazy?

Does my personal appearance indicate that I respect myself and my position?

Is my sense of humor atrophied?

Do I really like children and grown-ups and like to be with them, or is my genial manner just a pose?

Am I still able to teach a class of children successfully? The disgruntled teacher often says, "Huh! I'd like to see that stuffed shirt tackle *my* job." Very well, show her!

Do I invariably talk shop at the lunch table?

Am I really as good as I think I am?

Do I have a rich, full, and varied personal life outside of school hours, or am I (spiritually, and regardless of sex) an Old Maid?

Do I "know it all," or is it possible that I may learn from day to day, and so grow in grace?

Do I let my personal likes and dislikes get in my way?

Do I keep several jumps ahead of my teachers professionally?

Am I alert to the material and human resources of my community?

Can I make decisions promptly and stand by them after they are made?

Do I let the little cumulative irritation in the day's work "get me down"?

Am I sensitive to the needs of children, teachers, and parents?

This list is merely suggestive. The principal who seeks to set down his assets and liabilities needs to be realistic about the matter and not take the cheap and easy way out by blaming his short-comings on his teachers.

The reader may be interested in noting the qualities which principals admire most in each other. The following comments have been taken from reports acquired from a study recently made by the writer. Each item refers to a particular principal.

"The greatest asset in the school is the principal — one of the kindest, most gracious, and most lovable people I have ever known."

"An unusually talented, good-natured man principal, with a broad outlook on life and a sincere interest in children."

"An energetic principal who knows how to clean house, organize, and secure the co-operation of all concerned."

"The principal gives one a feeling of being completely in command of the situation. As a result of her personality and example, we see competence, neatness, and orderly arrangement throughout the school."

"The principal is a splendid organizer and knows exactly what is going on in the rooms of her school."

"The principal has a fine philosophy of education and has set definite goals on the way to realization."

"A wholesome personality; one who knows where to go and how to get there educationally."

"She has given much thought to the welfare of the children. The entire setup of the school reflects modern trends."

"Due to the principal's leadership, the school is a friendly school."

"The principal is moving slowly and wisely in a difficult situation."

"Marked ability to pull a school out of a rut."

"The teachers spoke of the splendid backing, encouragement, and help which they receive from their principal."

"The teaching in the school reflects the principal's helpful guidance."

"The principal participates in her school by teaching a class one period a day."

"The principal has transformed a formerly unadjusted teacher."

"Principal-teacher relationships are splendid."

"The principal has unusual ability to be friends with children."

"Mrs. could certainly be used by some of us less sensitive pedagogues to make plans for brightening up our school plants."

"Miss is a very gracious, understanding person. Her faculty speak very highly of her. She has done wonders in improving the physical setup of the building."

IV. The Continuous Inventory

Using the results of the visiting program as the basis, a *Continuous Inventory* of the resources and liabilities of his school may be devised and regularly maintained by the principal.

In this section, specific directions are given for initiating and maintaining such a continuous inventory of a modern elementary school. The organic connection between the techniques described in the preceding sections and the continuous inventory must be obvious: visiting, conference, and inter-visitation necessarily precede the making of the continuous inventory, since they assist the principal to construct a series of values by which to judge his own success. To know what the other fellow is doing, to sense his problems and examine his solutions for his problems, gives the principal of the home school a perspective which he would lack otherwise.

The principal should look upon himself as the general

manager of a corporation, the school district over which he presides. The owners of the corporation are fathers and mothers whose shares are represented by their boys and girls, by the school taxes they pay, and by their interest in education. As owners of the corporation, the shareholders, together with those of their neighbors who have no children in school but who pay taxes and are concerned over educational affairs, have a right to call upon their hired man to account for his stewardship. The principal who cannot render a balance sheet showing the assets and liabilities of his school finds himself in a highly embarrassing situation. The specific steps to be taken in establishing a continuous inventory are described in the following paragraphs.

Reduced to lowest terms, the basis for making a successful continuous inventory is the accumulation of pertinent facts about the school, together with interpretation and evaluation of the information thus secured. The Principals' Group Visit, the Principals' Group Conference, and the Principals' Exchange Visit are essential preliminaries to the continuous inventory, as they indicate clearly the educational assets and liabilities of the school.

A study of children's likes and dislikes

Another helpful preliminary source of information is a study of children's likes and dislikes as regards school subjects. Holmes [8] describes a study made in the Wyman School, Denver, Colorado, on the likes and dislikes of elementary-school children in relation to school subjects which is worthy of the attention of the elementary-school principal. A similar study was made by the writer of this book during the school year 1940-1941. Children in grades three to six inclusive in seventy-four elementary schools were asked to name the school subject each liked best and the subject most disliked or liked least. Those children who had no strong likes or dislikes

[8] Ethel E. Holmes, "School Subjects Preferred by Children," *The Sixteenth Yearbook* (Department of Elementary School Principals; Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1937), pp. 336-344.

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were excused from taking part in the poll. Answers were secured from more than 19,000 children, the prevailing trends showing no significant variation from grade to grade. The results of the survey may be summarized briefly as follows:

The total number of "likes" was 19,531; of "dislikes," 18,030. While the sources of possible errors were many — inadequate direction on the part of some teachers, "steering" children consciously or unconsciously toward the teachers' favorite subject, children's fear of admitting a "dislike," children's desire to please the teacher by "liking" all subjects, etc., — the very large number of children taking part in the study makes the findings, trends, and attitudes highly significant.

The four most popular subjects in order of rank were:

Arithmetic	(4766)	Reading	(3114)
Art	(3913)	Physical Education	(1848)

Since a more accurate method of reporting is to subtract "dislikes" from "likes," the true order of the above is Reading, Physical Education, Arithmetic, and Art.

The order of the remaining six "likes" was

Music	(1556)	Science	(989)
Spelling	(1448)	Handwriting	(476)
Social Studies	(1086)	Language	(335)

The order of the remaining six "likes" was

Music	(2731)	Language	(1624)
Arithmetic	(2648)	Science	(1516)
Art	(2320)	Writing	(1158)
Spelling	(2203)	Physical Education	(1005)
Social Studies	(1886)	Reading	(939)

If we were to make a graph of the total "likes" and "dislikes," we should find the two pictures quite different. In the graph of "likes," arithmetic, art, and reading are quite close together, followed by a sharp drop to the other items. In the graph of "dislikes" there is no sudden drop, the "dislikes" being fairly evenly spaced out. In other words, children seem to agree fairly well as to their "dislikes," but differ sharply as to

their "likes." As Holmes points out, children are interested, not so much in a school subject itself as in their power over that subject – what they can do with it. It is apparent in this study that the children concerned had considerable power over two of the three R's – arithmetic and reading – leading to the conclusion that many children liked them and that these subjects were well taught.

Two subjects which should have ranked high in favor, social studies and science, failed to do so, although one would expect both of them to stimulate strong and abiding interests in children. Indeed, relatively large numbers of children actively disliked them, indicating that either classroom materials or methods or both were ineffective.

Other items which were disquieting were (*a*) that in spite of the popularity of arithmetic, 2600 children found it difficult; (*b*) that 2700 children disliked music; (*c*) that 2300 children found art unappealing; and (*d*) that 2200 experienced trouble in spelling. Language and handwriting not only failed to arouse any enthusiasm but were actively disliked by 1600 children in one of these subjects and by 1000 children in the other. A similar study by Gardner,[9] closely follows the pattern indicated above. The *Moses School* is organized on the platoon system, so that the "special subjects" are taught by special teachers. Instead of asking his pupils to signify merely the subject liked best and the subject liked least, Gardner had the children list the subjects in order of preference with the following result:

1. Gymnasium (physical Education)
2. Art
3. Arithmetic
4. Spelling
5. Auditorium
6. Reading
7. Writing
8. Health
9. Music
10. Library
11. Social Science
12. Language

The rank-order of physical education, art, and arithmetic is easily understandable. Less easy to understand is the rela-

[9] "A Study of Children's Interests," by Gale Gordon, Principal of Moses School, Knoxville, Tennessee, *Tennessee Teacher*, May, 1941.

tively high ranking of spelling and the comparatively low ranking of reading; it indicates, perhaps, that Gardner's spelling program is more effective than his reading program. The low rank-order of the social studies is characteristic.

The children were asked what school subjects they would discontinue. The list is as follows:

1. Music	5. Writing	9. Spelling
2. Library	6. Language	10. Arithmetic
3. Social Science	7. Reading	11. Gymnasium
4. Health	8. Auditorium	12. Art

As in the Los Angeles study, the number of "dislikes" was relatively small, but the high rank-order of music and social science among the dislikes is characteristic. Gardner asked his children what subjects, not now taught, should be included in the curriculum, with the result that wood work, sewing, and cooking received substantial backing, a clear indication that in Knoxville, as in almost every other American school system, the practical arts are neglected.

From these findings it becomes possible to draft a tentative balance sheet (as regards children's preferences in the school subjects) as follows:

Assets	*Liabilities*
Reading	Social Studies
Physical Education	Science
Arithmetic	The lack of power felt by large groups of children in music, arithmetic, art, language and handwriting.
Art	

While the facts stated above are based on averages, each of the schools participating in the study presented its own particular problems, although there was reasonable conformity to the general pattern.

Supposing that for a given school this tentative balance sheet given holds good, what should the principal do about it?

1. Be sure that each child who receives a grade on a school subject on his report card knows what that subject means.

One of the distressing outcomes of the Los Angeles study was that so many children did not know what is meant by the term "social studies." It was found that many children voted against music because they thought of music (as a school subject) in terms of sight reading and notation, and they expressed surprise at hearing that chorus, rhythms, harmonica bands, community singing, and the school orchestra were included in the word "music" on the classroom program.

2. Cultivate in himself and in his teachers the scientific, impersonal attitude that faces facts honestly and resolves to do something about evident weaknesses. Confronted by the fact that many children actively disliked certain school subjects, many teachers waxed highly indignant, declaring volubly that "it just wasn't so." Teachers will find it useful to substitute intelligence for emotion in handling a difficult situation.

3. Remember that each child follows his own pattern of growth. Only five per cent of the children concerned in this study had difficulty in reading, but if John Jones is one of the 939 children who disliked reading, then reading is a major problem to him and to his parents and something should be done about John's reading problems.

4. Ask each teacher in the building to make a copy of her daily program and send it to the principal for his earnest consideration. He should be sure that it is the program actually followed and not one designed merely to ornament the teacher's register. The principal should assure himself that his teachers are maintaining a balanced program. The evidence in the present study tends to show that reading and arithmetic were being emphasized at the expense of social studies, science, and the language arts.

5. He should discuss his social-studies program, grades three to six inclusive, with his teachers. Is the sequence of topics from grade three to grade six so planned from teacher to teacher that the child will have a *continuity* of knowledge, habits, skills, and attitudes in the social studies? Each teacher should be asked to write a short statement of her program for the present semester. The principal should

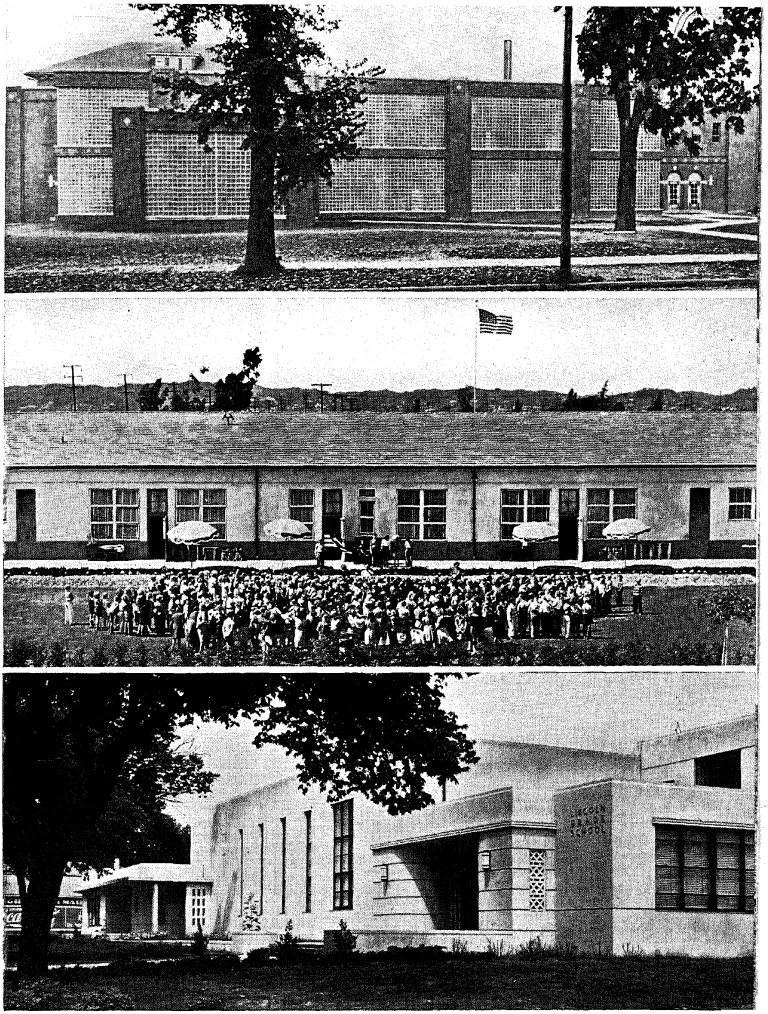
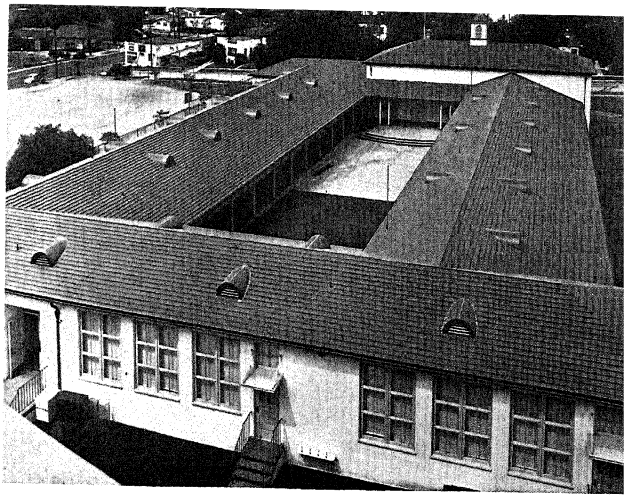


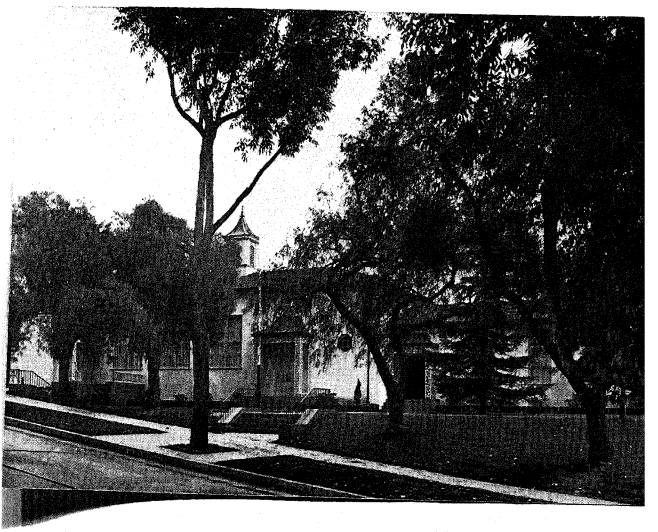
Plate 59 (top). Front Elevation, Elkader High School, Iowa

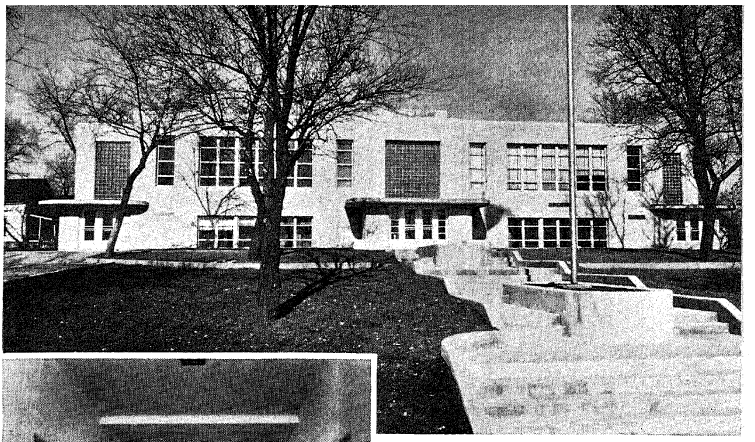
Plate 60 (middle). Terrace, Overland Avenue School, Los Angeles, California (Courtesy, Visual Education Section, Los Angeles City School District)

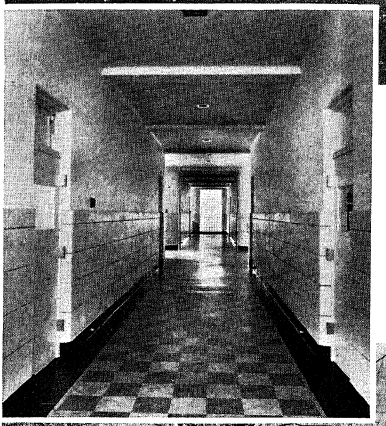
Plate 61 (bottom). Front Elevation, Lincoln Grade School, Iola, Kansas



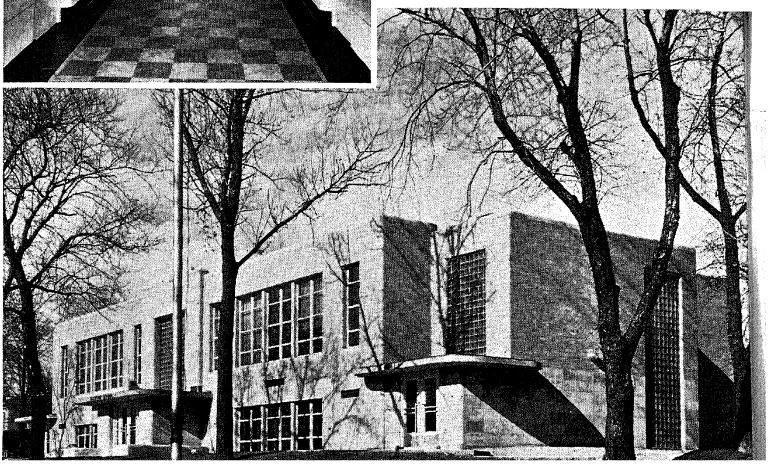
Plates 62 and 63. Aerial View and Front Elevation, Ivanhoe School, Los Angeles, California (Courtesy, Visual Education Section, Los Angeles City School District)

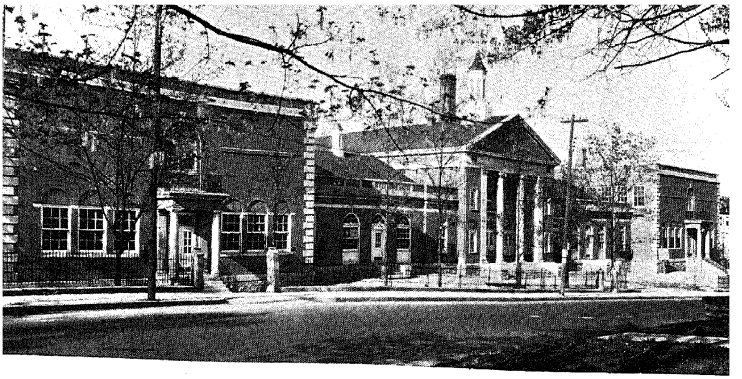






Plates 64, 65, 66. Front Elevation, Corridor, and Front and Side Elevations, Jackson School, LaSalle, Illinois (Courtesy, Hedrich-Blessing Studio)





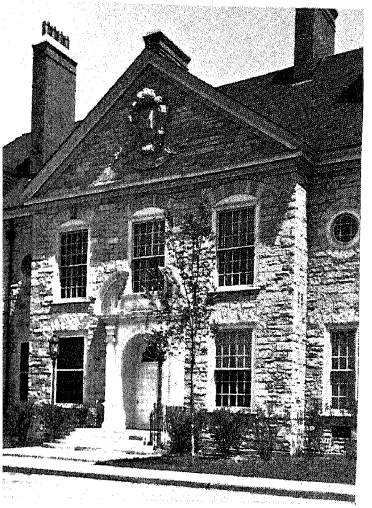
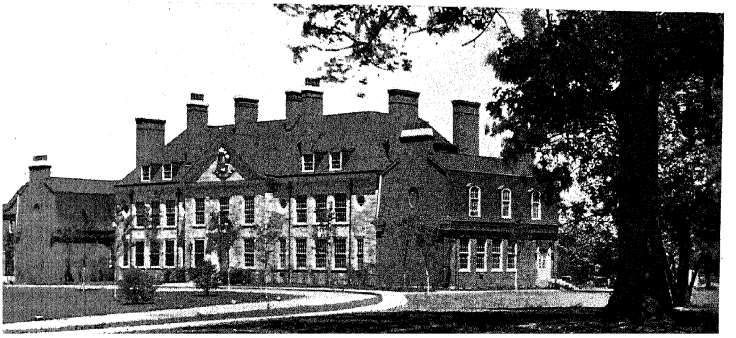


Plate 67 (above). Front Elevation, Frankfort Elementary School, Frankfort, Kentucky

Plates 68 (left) and 69 (below). Detail of Entrance and Front Elevation, Lake Forest High School, Lake Forest, Illinois



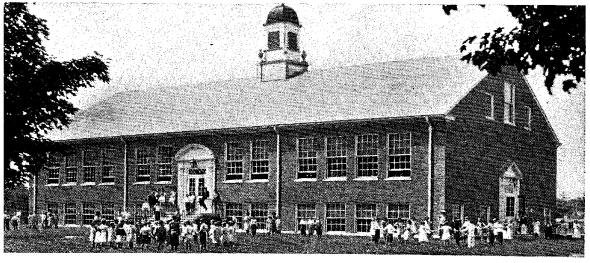


Plate 70. Front Elevation, Rollinsford School, Rollinsford, New Hampshire



Plate 71. Front Elevation, Jefferson School, Jefferson, Wisconsin

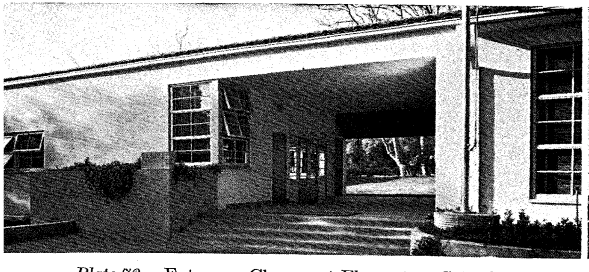
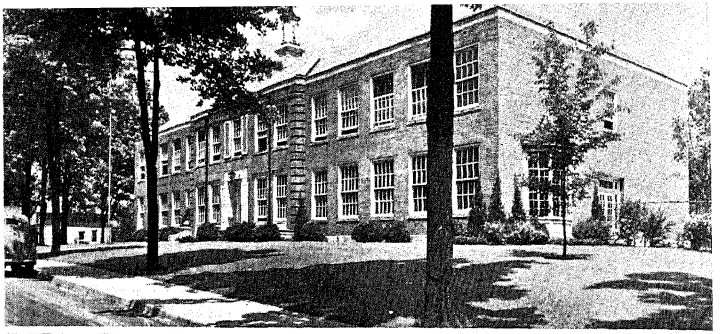
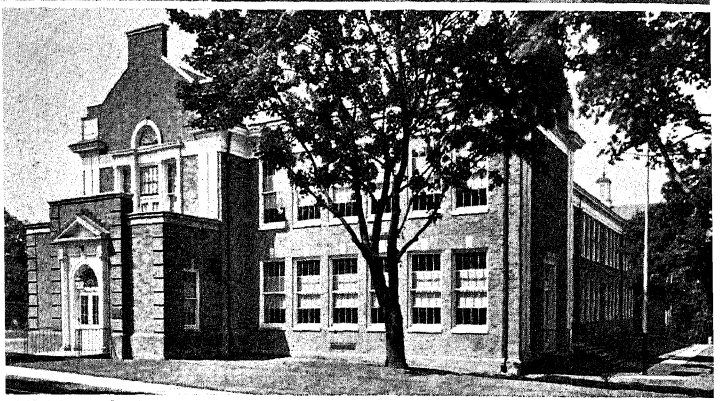


Plate 72. Entrance, Claremont Elementary School, Claremont, California (Courtesy, Eaton)



Plate 73. Front Elevation, Robert E. Lee School, Owensboro, Kentucky





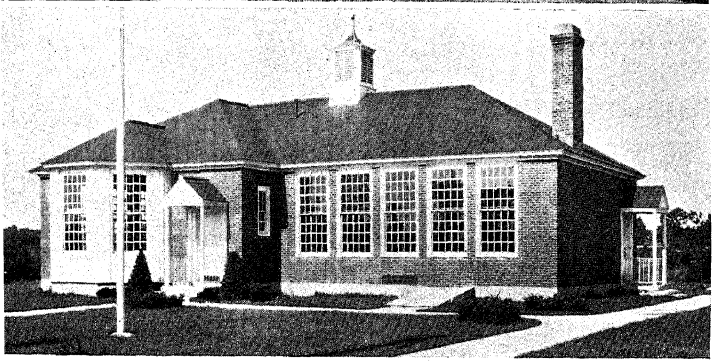


Plate 74 (top). Front Elevation, Carl L. Bailey School, Hillsdale, Michigan

Plate 75 (middle). Side Elevation, Jenkintown School, Jenkintown, Pennsylvania

Plate 76 (bottom). Front Elevation, Josephine B. Colbert School, Braintree, Massachusetts

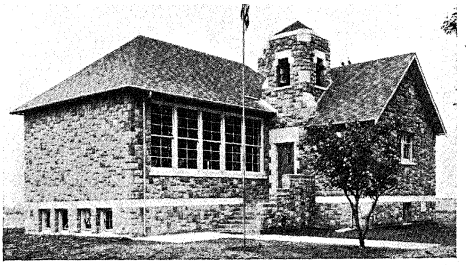
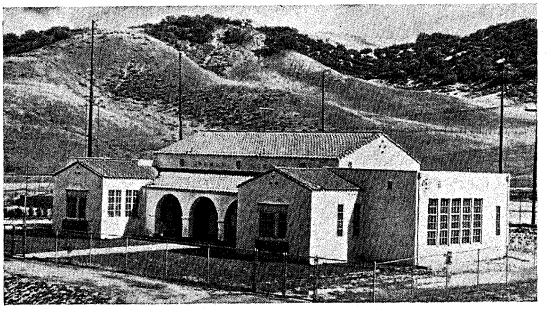
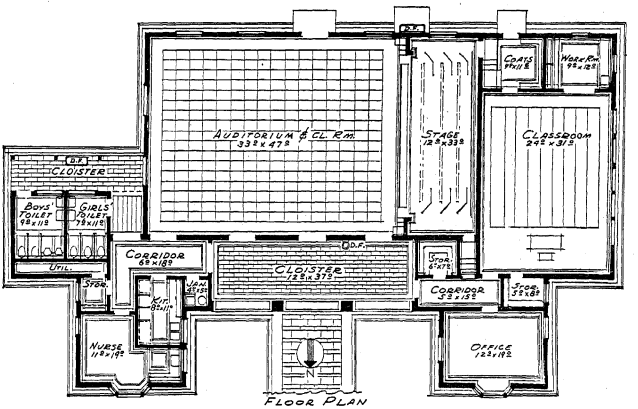
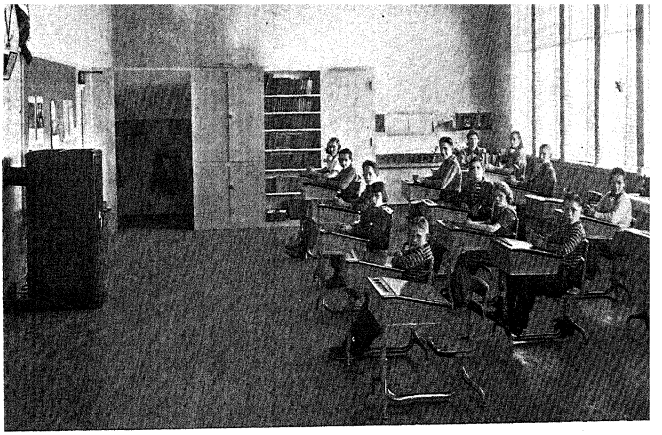


Plate 77. Front Elevation, District School No. 121, Watts Siding, Minnesota

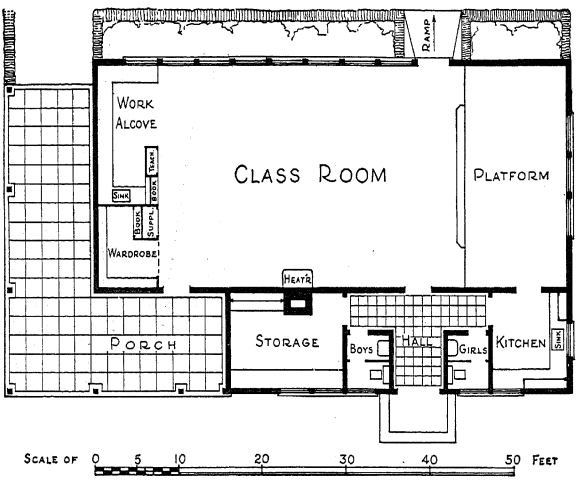


Plates 78 and 79. Front Elevation and Classroom Floor Plan, Gorman School, Los Angeles County, California





Plates 80 and 81. Classroom and Classroom Floor Plan, Leona School, Los Angeles County, California



spread them out on his desk in order from the third to the sixth grade and see what kind of social-studies program his school is sponsoring.

6. In the same way, he should examine his elementary science-nature study-gardening program from the kindergarten through the sixth grade. In the third grade and beyond, is there a definite place on the daily program for elementary science? Is there a definite science program in the school? Are elementary science, gardening, nature study, and excursions tied up into an integrated program?

7. What can be done in the school for those children who are deficient in musical and artistic ability? Cannot some phase of music and some phase of art be found to intrigue them?

8. What is being done in the school for children who are having a hard time in arithmetic? Is the teacher patient, kindly, helpful, and willing to show a child how to solve arithmetical problems and processes? Is the child keeping a record of his own progress in arithmetic? Does the teacher have a differentiated program in arithmetic as she does in reading, or must all children swallow the same dose?

9. He should examine his handwriting program from the primary grades upward. Are primary teachers using manuscript writing? If not, and if the first writing the children are asked to do is in cursive form, does the teacher adjust the learning to the child's muscular ability and control? In the third grade and above, is there a time on the program when specific instruction is given in writing? This is a skill subject in which success depends upon three steps: (*a*) teaching the concept (how to make a good capital *R*, for example), (*b*) drill to fix the skill, and (*c*) continued practice to keep the skill functioning.

10. He should examine methods of teaching spelling. Why do some children find the subject unlovely, distasteful, and difficult? Have the teachers an accepted method for teaching spelling which is fairly uniform from grade to grade, so that the child is saved the difficulty of always having to adjust to

a new method? Does the school have oral spelling, spelling "bees," and contests to arouse interest in spelling?

11. Is there a clear understanding in the school as to the meaning of the term "language arts"? The accepted definition throughout the United States sees the language arts as made up of

(1) Reading
(2) Literature
(3) Communication through speech
(4) Communication through writing
(5) Corrective work (usage)
(6) Creative expression

Where are the weaknesses in methods and materials which result in apathy on the part of the children toward a subject-matter field so fascinating, so delightful, and so rich in treasures for children? It is folly to express abilities in all six phases of the language arts under the single word "language" on the report card, but should not teachers move rapidly and effectively toward making "language" mean more than the elimination of "I seen," "I done," and "I have went"?

12. Is the physical-education program merely a games program, or is it part of an integrated *growth program* which includes physical education, health, nutrition, rest, and elementary science? Only a few schools in the United States have grasped this concept as yet.

13. The principal should do his best to get his teachers to work co-operatively with him on these problems. He should help them to see that all this does not mean an added burden, but rather a better budgeting of time and effort. He will receive excellent support from many good teachers. He may have to meet inertia, indifference, and, on rare occasions, downright opposition from a few. "I've been teaching in Room 13 for twenty-two years, and this is the first time I've been criticized!" His hardest problem will be to transform the attitude of some teachers, who personalize all attempts at appraisal and evaluation as criticism and faultfinding, by the scientific attitude which welcomes new evidence on the teach-

er's problems and by the habit of constantly checking techniques and results.

The principal makes or breaks a school. He has two major jobs, *Management* and the *Direction of Learning*, and the first of these exists only that it may contribute it to the second. If the instructional program in a school is good, it is because the principal accepts his responsibility as *Director of Learning* and creates with his teachers, pupils, and parents a strong, modern instructional program. If he allows himself to be lost in the details of management, his instructional program will be only as good as his better teachers can make it, and that, at best, will be an ineffective and unco-operative affair.

The importance of the continuous inventory lies in the fact that it assures, as its name indicates, a steady, progressive appraisal of the school, month after month and year after year, in place of the sporadic and often spasmodic "surveys" and "drives" which are little more effective than the "shot in the arm" given a patient to provide temporary relief.

A tentative balance sheet

From a co-operative study made by sixty-nine school principals in a large western city during the school year 1940-1941, it became possible to isolate the major areas or functions in the work of the elementary-school principal which form the basis of an effective continuous inventory. From these was developed a check list entitled *A Tentative Balance Sheet*, upon which the principal estimates assets and liabilities at least four times a year. This form appears on page 278.

This balance sheet is rightly called "tentative," as it admits of expansion in two directions, both in a more careful analysis of the principal's job in general, and in exploring the possibilities of the particular position to which the principal is assigned.

The major heading, General Instructional Program, for example, is limited in the present form to merely a listing of school subjects. A possible expansion might read as follows:

1. *Philosophy of education.* How far does each of my

A TENTATIVE BALANCE SHEET

	W.	Ave.	Str.[1]		W.	Ave	Str.
1. General administration				*5 General instructional program*			
(*a*) Grouping of Children				(*a*) Arithmetic			
(*b*) Office Administration				(*b*) Reading			
(*c*) Materials of Instruction				(*c*) Handwriting			
2. Physical plant as a whole				(*d*) Language			
(*a*) Custodial Service				(*e*) Social Studies			
(*b*) Maintenance Program				(*f*) Art			
(*c*) Housekeeping				(*g*) Music			
(*d*) Landscaping				(*h*) Practical Arts			
3. Personnel relationships				(*i*) Elementary Science and Gardening			
(*a*) Pupil-teacher-principal				(*j*) Assembly Program			
(*b*) Clerk				(*k*) Library Program			
(*c*) Community				*6. Leadership*			
4. Growth and development program							
(*a*) Play Areas							
(*b*) Rest Program							
(*c*) Nutrition Program							
(*d*) Cafeteria							
(*e*) Children's Lunch Program							
(*f*) Physical Education							
(*g*) Good Social Habits							

[1] Weak, Average, Strong.

teachers have a basic educational philosophy which controls her procedures?

2. *Classroom environment.* Has each of my teachers set up a rich, stimulating environment in her classroom which provides desirable experiences for her children?

3. *Experiences.* Are the experiences arising in the classroom such as to bring about desirable changes in behavior on the part of the children, intellectual expansion, and emotional release?

And so on, through each of the categories developed by the principal in his evaluation of his school.

Development of standards

Another use for the tentative balance sheet will be the development of a series of standards whereby teachers may evaluate their progress. Let us take, by way of illustration, three phases of evaluation: What constitutes strength in physi-

cal education, grouping of children, and management of an audio-visual program? The following standards may prove stimulating to the principal anxious to develop such standards in his own school.

Physical education.[10] Evidences of a strong program in physical education are as follows:

1. Each teacher is supplied with manuals, teaching guides, and necessary materials and equipment.
2. Yard areas are well marked and well equipped and so placed that efficient service is assured. The layout of play areas provides easy access on the part of the children from their classrooms and to sanitary facilities.
3. Teachers follow a planned, seasonal program which parallels the growth cycles of the children.
4. The program provides a balanced variety of games, rhythms, and skills.
5. The noon hour affords a variety of organized games on areas clearly marked for the purpose.
6. The program is directed toward the development of qualities of social adjustment, self-discipline, courage, sportsmanship, and leadership.
7. A spirit of wholesome fun permeates all groups.
8. Intelligent supervision on the part of teachers indicates their whole-hearted participation in the program.

Evidences of a weak program in physical education are as follows:

1. Play areas overlap and traffic lines intercept, providing hazards to children and promoting confusion.
2. Play equipment is unwisely located, resulting in safety hazards and conflict among play groups.
3. Play areas are unmarked, leading to unnecessary disputes among children.
4. Play equipment is poorly cared for and improperly housed.

[10] Courtesy of Mr. H. Loren Mitchell, Los Angeles City Schools.

Grouping of children.[11] Evidences of a strong program in the grouping of children are as follows:

1. The physical and mental development of the group members is sufficiently similar to permit them to play and work together happily and successfully.

2. The chronological ages of the group members are similar. Generally speaking, children of approximately the same ages naturally seek each other. It would be sensible, therefore, for school grouping to follow the same pattern.

3. The members of the group are able to accomplish academic work within limits not so widely diverse as to make the teaching situation impossible. If Numbers 1 and 2 are well done, Number 3 will probably result.

Evidences of a weak program in the grouping of children are as follows:

1. Academic accomplishment is the principal criterion of grouping.

2. The wishes or comfort of teachers are put before the needs of children.

3. The children are not enthusiastic about their work.

4. The chronological age range is excessive.

Management of an audio-visual program.[12] Evidences of good management of an audio-visual program are as follows:

1. There should be evidence of an audio-visual program which supports a unified, integrated program. Audio-visual materials should be used in the classroom as *real teaching* tools in *real learning* situations. They should be a *part* (not a thing apart) of the leading program.

2. There should be evidence of an understanding that there is a place in the school program for the auditorium use of films. Films shown to groups in the auditorium should be of broad interest, comprehensible to pupils of different grades and backgrounds, and should cover subjects of importance to children. Frequently, by advance discussion and evaluation

[11] Courtesy of Mrs. Cora Bacon, Los Angeles City Schools.

[12] Courtesy of Mrs. Grace Soderlund, Los Angeles City Schools.

of the film, the auditorium picture may be made to serve many grade levels in various subjects at the same time.

3. There should be evidence of the same wise planning in the use of audio-visual equipment as there is in the preparation of a well-planned lesson.

In order to avoid conflict and inconvenience:

(1) Equipment should be centrally located.
(2) Equipment should be systematically checked to see that it is in working order at all times.
(3) The faculty should be informed of all available equipment.
(4) A schedule for the use of equipment should be maintained.

4. There should be evidence that all teachers are able to operate the audio-visual equipment in the school.

5. There should be evidence of an alert, active audio-visual representative who is familiar with the new, dynamic, challenging materials that are available and who will stimulate interest in these materials.

6. There should be evidence of a well-planned program of caring for the permanent collection of visual materials on file in the school:

(1) It should be housed in a convenient, centrally located place.
(2) The card-catalogue file should be kept with the collection.
(3) New catalogue cards should be filed as soon as they arrive.
(4) Materials should be checked out and checked in for circulation.
(5) Frequent check of the files should be made to determine if the materials are being used to the best advantage.

7. There should be evidence of the intelligent use of all audio-visual catalogues:

(1) A check list of catalogues in force is on file in the

school. All out-of-date catalogues should be destroyed.

(2) The catalogues should be available to all teachers.

Evidences of poor management of an audio-visual program are as follows:

1. There still exists the idea that the audio-visual materials are merely "time fillers." By the practice of showing several unrelated films at the same time for groups of various grade and age levels in either the classroom or the auditorium, children are being deprived of the opportunity to obtain and retain valuable knowledge.

2. There still exists an attitude that equipment is difficult to operate. Instruction is available, and skill in operation is easily developed.

3. There still exists the lack of a well-planned program for housing the permanent collection of visual materials. Plans should be made to take care of this material as new, valuable, informative materials will continually arrive at the school.

Leadership

One of the items on the *Tentative Balance Sheet* of assets and liabilities is "Leadership," referring to the quality of leadership exercised by the principal. This is a difficult point on which to assess oneself, and the principal may find that the following comment clarifies his thinking.

First, what leadership is not. It is *not* making the school a social club based on the sentimental we're-all-one-happy-family idea to the point where the teacher-principal relationship is ruined by that undue familiarity which often ends in contempt. It is *not* making the school an autocracy in which the principal — whether benevolent or despotic — treats teachers as servants or as children. It is *not* making the school a feudal court where everyone must worship the reigning monarch.

How, then, is real leadership displayed by the principal?

1. By his inspiring confidence and respect — confidence in the principal's ability and respect for his character.

2. By his having a stated policy for his school based upon a sound philosophy of education.

3. By his putting his policy in operation through the selection of goals he wishes to reach and through setting in motion the operations which will result in his arriving at his goals. Or, to state this a little differently, the principal knows where he wants to go and knows how to get there.

4. By his dealing honestly with his subordinates at all times. He lays his cards on the table and does not dissemble or evade or equivocate.

5. By his showing ability to make decisions promptly and wisely and having the courage to stand by his decisions. He does not rely on precedent or the book of rules or his superiors to save him from responsibility for his actions.

6. By his habitually maintaining poise and self-control in meeting the petty irritations in the day's work as well as the occasional emergencies.

7. By his being friendly with all his subordinates and intimate with none. He does not play favorites.

8. By his maintaining good discipline in his school, since teachers and other subordinates need at times the salutary effect of wise discipline.

9. By his being wiser, more personable, more skilled in the amenities, more scholarly in his education, more profound in his learning, and more cultured in things that make life significant and beautiful than any of his teachers.

All the above characteristics are important, but over and above all of them, is that indefinable quality which makes people *want* to follow the leader. How do you acquire it if you do not have it? Be believing in yourself, by having faith in your destiny, and by possessing the strength of character which enables you to forge ahead on your chosen way without fear or favor.

CHAPTER TEN



The Principal as Civilized Adult

MR. STUART CHASE, in an unguarded moment, stated that there are only one million civilized adults in the United States. Presumably the remaining one hundred and twenty-nine million are infants, adolescents, savages, and barbarians. It is the purpose, therefore, of this chapter to explore somewhat in detail, not only the general concept of the civilized adult, but that concept as a goal for the elementary-school principal. The first step in such an exploration is to define our terms. Just what is meant by "civilized"? Just what is meant by "adult"?

Suppose we take the easier concept, the word "adult." The dictionary defines "adult" as "a person grown to full size and strength; one who has attained maturity. One who has attained legal age." In other words, from the standpoint of the dictionary, an adult is a person who has completely "grown up," in the organic sense; a state at which persons arrive between the ages of eighteen and twenty-four years. Having grown up in this sense, he becomes his own master, forfeits certain rights which protected him as a child, and assumes new rights as becomes an adult, including the right to vote in an official election. So much for fact. Now for assumption and supposition.

There are six popular assumptions about the adult which are

held as valid, although a little reflection will clearly show that, in individual cases, one, or two, or more, or all assumptions may be entirely without foundation in fact. It is assumed:

(1) That physical maturity is accompanied by intellectual maturity, in spite of the fact that we have met many adults in everyday life who live habitually on the intellectual level of *Archie* in *Duffy's Tavern.*

(2) That physical maturity is accompanied by social maturity, in spite of the fact that there are dozens of persons in the neighborhood circle of each of us who cannot hold jobs because they cannot "get along" with other people.

(3) That physical maturity is accompanied by emotional maturity, in spite of the fact that each of us knows people who are so emotionally immature and so emotionally unstable that no one wants them around.

(4) That the adult is one who earns his way in life, has a job, pays his bills, and contributes something of value to the community, in spite of the fact that each of us knows the "chiseler" who never does an honest day's work if he can sponge on somebody else.

(5) That the adult is one who exercises self-reliance and independence in his personal affairs, in spite of those weaklings who constantly lean on other people and cannot make up their minds on any subject whatsoever.

(6) That the adult is "a good citizen," although the percentage of the total voting population which goes to the polls faithfully rarely exceeds thirty-five per cent.

Having made this highly unsatisfactory beginning in our exploration of the concept "civilized adult," let us push on to examine the meaning of the word "civilized." The dictionary says "civilized" refers to "a society or culture or state distinguished by organization, enlightenment, and progress." Here are some pertinent comments:

(1) *Organization.* Nothing is more highly "organized" than the Veterans' Administration in Washington.

(2) *Enlightenment.* The United States regards itself as an enlightened nation, in spite of the fact that in many sec-

tions of the country we deny the Negro his civil and economic rights.

(3) *Progress.* Our material progress is marked; our social progress confused and insecure; our ethical progress slow and faltering.

Webster's Dictionary, in discussing the concept "civilized," adds that "Civilization is a state characterized by development of the means of expressing the aspirations of the human spirit." We might, with profit, examine the way the human spirit expresses its aspirations through the personalities of James C. Petrillo or of Al Capone. Webster goes on to add as an additional meaning, "an advanced state of material and social well-being," as characterized, perhaps, by the slums which lie within a stone's throw of the nation's Capitol.

Popular assumptions are constantly made about the concept "civilized" as well as about the concept "adult." There are two which are blatantly fallacious: First, that the farther back in history we go, the less civilization and the more savagery we find; second, that the farther away from the United States one goes, the less civilization he will find. The reader is asked to contrast a dialogue of Plato with *Life's* pictorial account of the Detroit race riot and determine the accuracy of our popular assumptions. Apparently, therefore, we may live in a civilization without any guarantee that the people who live in it are civilized.

Let us put together what we have learned so far about "civilized" and "adult." *"A civilized adult is a person who has attained physical maturity and legal maturity, and lives in a culture which is a mixture of savagery, barbarism, and enlightenment."*

All of which is not very helpful.

Probably the only way out of the dilemma is the experimental approach. Most of us know men and women whom we feel to be "civilized" in the best sense of the word and "adult" in all their characteristics – physical, intellectual, social, and emotional. If we study these personalities, we may be able to list the salient and common factors and so formulate

a concept of "civilized adult" by qualities rather than by formal definition.

I. The Pattern of a Civilized Adult

1. *He is a man of the world.* He has "been around." He knows and enjoys people. He is at home in the modern world. He is at ease in any society. He speaks all the contemporary American "languages," adapting his speech to the circle of people in which he finds himself.

2. *He is widely read.* He knows the great people of the world through books. He thinks their thoughts after them. He keeps closely in touch with the signs of the times.

3. *He is tolerant.* He recognizes the right of every man to be himself and has no desire to mold any man into his pattern. He is patient with people unlike himself and listens with kindness and understanding to views which he cannot personally accept.

4. *He is independent.* He lives by a code which makes him self-sufficient in meeting life's problems. He does not lean on others for support. He thinks and acts in accordance with the inner light which illuminates him.

5. *He is emotionally mature.* He does not allow himself the luxury of emotional outbursts, because he knows that nothing is important enough to warrant the loss of self-control. He has a sense of values which teaches him the relative importance of the problems he meets. He associates with people without becoming personally involved.

6. *He is impersonal.* He does not interpret the attitudes and actions of others in terms of himself. He has a sense of detachment which enables him to view himself as he views others. He is able to laugh *with* others and *at* himself.

7. *He is urbane.* The implication here is that he is the cultured man of the city in distinction from the uncouth, uncultured countryman, the "rustic" as the Romans called him, in distinction from the foreigner who lived outside "the pale." He is no stranger to the amenities, the nice and kindly ways of

getting along with people easily, gracefully, and without friction.

8. *He respects the personality of others.* He does nothing to cause any man to lose his self-respect, knowing that there is a level of self-esteem below which a man cannot sink with safety.

9. *He is sensitive to the reaction of others.* He has insight, both intellectual and intuitional. He knows how to adjust himself to people, because he has the power to project himself into the thoughts and feelings of others. He has an understanding heart. He is compassionate.

10. *He is disciplined.* He has suffered the storms of life without being submerged. He bears disappointment and sorrow with equanimity. He knows the value of adversity.

11. *He is magnanimous.* He is great of heart. He is not petty or mean or small in his personal relations. His sense of humor makes him patient with others.

12. *He is serene.* He has inner resources. He has both *faith* and *a faith* upon which he draws. He believes in the Eternal Goodness. He is poised. He is an integrated personality.

II. The Road to the Goal

How does one become a "civilized adult"? One never does become a *completely* civilized adult, since we are all subject to human failings and errors; one can only grow in that general direction. However, here are a few suggestions directed especially at elementary-school principals.

(1) Review your circle of personal friends. For sentimental reasons, you may be continuing, year after year, friendships which you have completely outgrown and which contribute nothing to your development. Add new friends as opportunity presents itself from professions other than teaching. Try to make your circle as varied as possible in occupation, personality, and culture. Nothing stifles the growth of a principal or a teacher so much as to have his social contacts confined to members of his own profession.

(2) Maintain toward your teachers and other professional associates a friendly but not intimate attitude. Do not become socially or emotionally entangled with your associates.

(3) Learn to enjoy other people, even casual acquaintances. Discover the human virtues they possess and be tolerant toward their faults. Do not expect every stranger you meet to be a pale, washed-out reproduction of yourself.

(4) Budget wisely your out-of-school hours among the three areas of experience — recreation, home responsibilities, and solitude. If possible specialize on a form of recreation which calls for the constant use of the long muscles — swimming, golf, gardening, etc. To get the most pleasure from your chosen recreation, raise it to the level of real expertness. Along with this, you should cultivate a hobby which calls for the use of the fingers and wrists to encourage the finer muscular adjustments — cabinet-making, playing the piano, knitting, cooking, etc. While no one can prescribe the particular recreation most appealing to another person, you should make place in your life for relaxation and change of thought through "having a good time." The common excuse, "I just haven't time for it," may be countered by the statement, "You can't afford not to have time for it."

Robert Louis Stevenson summed up family responsibilities in the well-known paragraph from his "Christmas Sermon":

> To be honest — to be kind; to earn a little and spend a little less; to make upon the whole a family happier for his presence; to renounce when necessary and not be embittered; to have few friends and these without capitulation; on the same grim condition to be friends with himself — here is a task to call upon all that a man has of fortitude and delicacy.[1]

Either you are happy in your family life or unhappy; if the latter, do something about it. Many people just sit and suffer, some because they are lazy, some because they find the crown of martyrdom vastly becoming. Sometimes the solution is difficult, but there are few family problems which intelligence and patience cannot solve.

[1] New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1900.

Many people have the apparently insoluble problem of aged dependents. Here one course of action is imperative: make time for yourself somewhere during the twenty-four hours when you can be by yourself and recruit your energies. Many a teacher has been ruined by the demands of a possessive, selfish mother or older sister, who finally drains from the victim her last drop of energy. Certainly, we owe a duty to those in our family circle; but we owe a duty to ourselves as well. It may become necessary to fight for one's right to live as a reasonable, happy, human being.

Accept cheerfully the discipline of family life. You have had plenty of it; you will have much more. Remember what the old gambler said: "Life doesn't consist in having a good hand, but in playing a poor hand out to the end."

Accept the fact that at middle age and beyond you will become increasingly alone. This is a hard fact, but inescapable. There will be, in increasing number, times when even your nearest and dearest may not enter into your thoughts. The sensible person provides for this contingency in advance. Build up your inner resources. Extensive reading is exceedingly helpful. Learn what the wise men of all ages have done in meeting the problems of life.

The following point is very important: arrange a part of each week when you can be entirely alone. How do you like your own company? Are you bored and restless? Then your inner resources are meager and should be strengthened. By thinking the thoughts of great men after them you can begin to think some great thoughts of your own.

It is not always necessary to spend your solitary hours in reading. Just sit and think over what you have read or heard or seen or learned through the day's experiences. Your mind will wander off to trivial things in spite of all you can do, but bring it back over and over again to important things until it begins to respond to training. Once in a while just blot all thought from your mind and sit passively. This is a very hard process to master, but practice will render it increasingly easy. Often as you sit with your mental processes completely stop-

ped, you will receive a hint, a suggestion, an order to guide you in meeting the problems which distress you. If this seems too much like black magic to you, just say to yourself that as you sit idle an idea "pops into your head" from nowhere; an idea which holds the answer to one of your unsolved difficulties.

(5) Have a faith and practice it in your daily life. It doesn't make much difference *what* it is; the essential factor is *how* your faith functions in guiding your daily living toward desirable ends. A time will come in your life when reason and intelligence and logical thought can do no more for you. You are going to have to move ahead by blind faith. Accept the situation joyfully and do not worry about the proof. There are a good many truths in the world which we realize by intuition and insight and inner conviction that we cannot justify by objective proof.

Do not worry if your faith has ragged edges and is split at the seams; better a poor faith, better a shaky faith, better a faith which deserts you at intervals than no faith at all. At this stage you will not have much choice or freedom of action. It is either go ahead blindly in your faith or go under completely. Faith responds eagerly to good treatment. Be kind to yours and you will not be sorry.

Matthew Arnold, in his essay on Joubert, the French philosopher, quotes Joubert on this point:

> May I say it? It is not hard to know God, provided one will not force oneself to define Him.
>
> Do not bring into the domain of reasoning that which belongs to our innermost feeling. State truths of sentiment and do not try to prove them. There is a danger in such proofs; for in arguing it is necessary to treat that which is in question as something problematic: now that which we accustom ourselves to treat as problematic ends by appearing to us as really doubtful. In things that are visible and palpable, never prove what is believed already; in things that are certain and mysterious — mysterious by their greatness and by their nature — make people believe them and do not prove them; in things that are matters of practice and duty, command and do not explain. "Fear God" has made many men pious; the proofs

> of the existence of God have made many men atheists. From the defense springs the attack; the advocate begets in his hearer a wish to pick holes; and men are almost always led on, from the desire to contradict the doctor, to the desire to contradict the doctrine. Make Truth lovely and do not try to arm her; mankind will then be far less inclined to contend with her.
>
> You may do what you like; mankind will believe no one but God; and He only can persuade mankind who believes that God has spoken to him. No one can give faith unless he has faith; the persuaded persuade, as the indulgent disarm.

When someone close to you stops living, do not feel that the end of the world has come for both of you. Have you ever stopped to think that *another* world full of very busy, eager, interested, and joyful people may not be very far away from us?

(6) The writer has been distressed by the fact that so many elementary-school principals do not live more than two or three years after retirement. The reason is not hard to find; most of these people have lost the only interest they had in life, the circle of interests that revolved in and around their schools. When retirement puts an end to the daily contacts with school which the principal has enjoyed for so many years, there is nothing left. Hence, one quality which the principal in search of a career as a civilized adult must acquire (and literally it is a matter of life and death) is that "many-sidedness" of disposition and character which was so greatly admired by the Greeks of the Golden Age and which came to a climax in the career of a man whom an American admirer called "the most all-aroundest man" in the history of the world. He was a painter, an architect, a philosopher, a sculptor, an athlete, a physicist, a mathematician, and an anatomist. He was a practical engineer and a pioneer in aeronautics. His name was Leonardo da Vinci, and Van Loon summarizes his case thus:

> How he found time to do all these things and do them so well is one of the many mysteries that were part of his character. Of course, like all universal geniuses, he was an inde-

> fatigable worker. He lived and slept in his studio, but he seems to have been one of those fortunate persons who could do with very few hours of rest and was therefore able to devote twenty hours of each day to his endless mathematical calculations, to his geometrical puzzles, to his plans for his flying machines (the darned things would have stayed in the air, too, if only he had had a decent motor!), and to his eternal experiments with all sorts of pigments and building materials.[2]

Now, it may be conceded at once that it is not likely that any one of us will become a Leonardo da Vinci, a Francesco Petrarch, or a Sir Philip Sidney, but each of us can broaden his interests in life so that the cessation of any one of them will not unduly disturb his peace of mind and happiness.

(7) School situations can be utilized by the principal to assist him in becoming a truly civilized adult. Consider the principal who is confronted by a serious personnel problem, for example, the case of a custodian who defies the principal's authority. Here is an opportunity for the principal to display the four essential qualities needed under the circumstances: *insight, firmness, decision, courage.* Let us analyze each of these more closely:

> *Insight*: the ability to appraise a situation quickly and accurately so as to put one's finger on the exact spot which is causing maximum irritation.
>
> *Firmness*: the ability to come to grips with the offender so that he understands what you expect and is forced to face the issue.
>
> *Decision*: the ability to make up one's mind promptly as to what needs to be done.
>
> *Courage*: the ability to carry through the decision to its logical end.

To put it in another way, the principal discovers that the source of the custodian's militant attitude is an inferiority complex, which he tries to sublimate through bluster (*insight*). The principal forces the custodian to face the situation — submission or defeat (*firmness*). The principal places the custodian on probation for thirty days with the understanding

[2] Hendrik Willem Van Loon, *The Arts* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1937), p. 287.

that if the custodian does not mend his ways, he is out of a job (*decision*). The principal refuses to alter his decision in the face of a threat from a few of the custodian's friends to "get" the principal (*courage*).

Surely these four qualities go into the making of a civilized adult.

Once you decide to set as your goal the realization of a human being who is a truly civilized adult, be prepared to find it a long, slow process. If you become discouraged as you realize more and more the extent and quality of your human defects and weaknesses, hold in mind the advice given by Saint Paul to people in your situation:

> Wherefore seeing we also are compassed about with so great a cloud of witnesses, let us lay aside every weight, and the sin which doth so easily beset us, and let us run with patience the race that is set before us.

Parents of normal children are disturbed at times over displays of what seems to be wanton cruelty on the part of their offspring. Another less distressing worry is the evidence of overpowering egotism which leads to bullying smaller and weaker children. If the process of maturation proceeds at the normal rate, these traits gradually disappear; they seem to be part of the exploratory process with which every child tests his environment and the persons who live in it, rather than demonstrations of original sin. If, however, these traits persist into youth and adult life, the person concerned becomes abnormal in thought and act; he suffers from a delayed adolescence which any psychiatrist will tell you is dangerous in the extreme. This state of mind appears to be carried over into later years as a result of some block in the emotional nature caused by a sense of inferiority and consequent frustration. This frustration can be appeased only by a show of force toward his fellow men whom he holds, oddly enough, responsible for his condition. Hitler, Goebbels, Himmler, and the S.S. Troopers have the dubious honor of having given the modern

world a display of the most wanton cruelty the world has ever seen, their only peers in this respect being the Japanese. Back of this savagery is a long history of frustration which sees every normal person as an oppressor who must be tortured until death ends his suffering. Only then can the Nazi or the Japanese feel that he has really reached the stature of manhood; he is the victor, the conqueror, the better man.

To be a civilized adult, therefore, is not merely a desirable endeavor for each of us, it is an imperative duty. We must become "grown up" in the fullest sense of the term, by developing these qualities of kindness, compassion, sympathy, and tolerance which alone separate us from the beast.

Let Saint Paul say the last word: "When I was a child, I spake as a child, I understood as a child, I thought as a child: but when I became a man, I put away childish things."

◇

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